

The Nation.

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The Week.

THE General Term of the Supreme Court of this District has just decided, Judge Barbour dissenting, in the suit of Mrs. Putnam for damages for the murder of her husband in a street-car, that a common carrier is bound "not only to guard each passenger from violence and the assaults of its own agents and employees, but from the assaults and violence of other passengers carried in the same conveyance, and from other causes of discomfort or injury which could have been reasonably anticipated or prevented." Judge Barbour concurs in this as regards steam railroads and steamboats, but dissents as to street-cars, on the ground that a passenger may make his escape from these latter vehicles. Now, it is not for us to say whether the decision of the majority of the court is good law—the Court of Appeals will decide that; but no reasonable man can doubt that it ought to be good law, and that until it is good law the public will, in the present state of corporation morals, have no proper guarantee for the proper selection and good behavior of car conductors and drivers, on whose temper, courage, and general efficiency the comfort and safety of so many women, children, and delicate persons are every day dependent. But we ought to call the attention of reformers interested in this subject to the fact that recent decisions of the Court of Appeals of this State tend to establish a law that the conductor of a horse-car is not "the driver of a carriage" under the statute; and, moreover, that if he commits any act of violence or outrage on a passenger, as long as it is plainly not committed in the discharge of his duty, and as long as he cannot suppose that it is, the company is not liable at common law for his acts. This, of course, if sound, removes at once one of the strongest motives for the employment of respectable, careful, and good-tempered men. If a conductor thrashes a passenger for reproofing him, for instance, the company is not responsible, because no conductor thrashes passengers, or supposes himself empowered to do so, in the ordinary course of his duty. The remedy, we need hardly say, is not to change the law, but to elect judges, Illinois fashion, to decide all car cases against the companies.

The death of Mr. W. W. Whiting may have some modifying influence upon Massachusetts politics; if not, the facts in that matter may be said to stand as follows at the present writing: Senator Boutwell and Secretary Richardson are reported as asserting, on their return from Cambridge and Boston the other day, that Butler would assuredly get the regular nomination. This is held to prove that at least he will have control of the Federal patronage, which, it is added, will be his main reliance. It is asserted that the appointment of Sanger as District-Attorney in Boston was, after all, not a personal triumph of Sanger's, as some anti-Butlerites have said, but really a triumph for the Butlerites and Boutwellites, Boutwell having earnestly begged that Sanger should have his reward, the President being at the moment in the mind to yield to Mr. Hoar's advice and give the office to Judge Devens, an old companion in arms. But Boutwell's urgency broke up this plan. On the whole, then, says a correspondent who ought to be well informed, "my impression is that Butler has now as good a chance to be nominated as Governor Washburn or any other man has, but that this chance will diminish with each succeeding week. Still, there is great apathy among the leading Republicans in all parts of the State. . . . And they may let the nomination go by default."

On the anti-Butler side of the account, certain other considerations are put forward. Nearly all the Boston press—all of it that is of much account—and nine-tenths of the country press, are

already outspoken in opposition to Butler. The *Advertiser* speaks of receiving "assurances from all parts of the State that its name must be kept exalted and pure." For this and other reasons it expresses a confidence equal to the *Journal's* that Butler is certainly doomed to disappointment, and that the political prospect is perfectly satisfactory. The various Republican State Conventions recently held have, with one accord, denounced the Salary Bill, which Butler and his yoke-fellow, Senator Carpenter, uphold and applaud, and in particular the Maine Convention (understood to be speaking for the adroit Mr. Blaine) has very pointedly declared that the bill must be repealed. Thus, then, whether the Worcester Convention, nominating Butler, approves or condemns the bill, Butler is hurt by its action. Furthermore, Butler has within the past few days been publicly upbraided in a United States Court, by a well-known Republican, as having been thievish while in command at the South. Altogether, the contemplation of these pros and cons is rather a melancholy task, and is not made less so that the two parties of reform—the temperance men and the labor reformers—are understood to be quite as fond of Butler as of any other candidate. Outside of the State the Democratic press appears to think that Butler is a candidate about good enough for his party, and that it is a piece of impudence for the Republicans now to undertake to condemn the back-pay bill which they themselves passed. There is, indeed, a certain amount of what may be called dilatory prudence in it; but these Democratic journals say nothing of the relative honesty of the Democratic and Republican members in that transaction.

It will be recollect that the question of the reading of the Bible in the public schools came up some three or four years ago in Cincinnati, and made a great stir, the population of the city being, we think, not very unevenly divided in opinion. The action of the Board of Education was to issue two rules, of which the first declared that "the true object and intent of the rule is to enable the children of all sects and opinions in matters of faith and practice to enjoy alike the benefits of the school fund"; and the mandatory part of the rule was to the effect that "religious instruction and the reading of religious books, including the Holy Scriptures, are prohibited in the schools of Cincinnati." The second obnoxious rule repealed so much of another rule as directed that the opening exercise in all the intermediate and district schools should be the reading of a portion of the Bible. These rules were naturally displeasing to many persons, and legal steps were taken to overthrow the action of the Board. The Superior Court of Cincinnati being applied to, made perpetual an order enjoining the Board and restraining it from carrying the rules into effect. Ever since then this decree of injunction has been before the Supreme Court of the State, and that Court has now removed the injunction, and the Board's order stands. It is not true, however, that the whole question known as "the Bible in the Cincinnati schools" was before the Supreme Bench. How far it was before them their decision makes plain: The reading of the Bible in the schools is one of two things—a mere exercise in reading from a text-book, as from McGuffey's 'Readers,' or else it is a religious exercise, a mode or form of worship. Now, if it be the first, the Board's authority is paramount, and not to be controlled by any court; if exercised rashly or otherwise badly, the people have the remedy in their own hands, and can elect a new Board. If, however, the Board orders the reading as a religious exercise, and some taxpayer objects on the ground that one of his rights are invaded, why, then the question will be before the judicial tribunals for decision. We may well believe that it will be no easy one to decide. Meantime, for the benefit of the sticklers on either side, we may point out that Protestants can no more make a history or a philosophy, or perhaps a reading-book, for a certain large section of their fellow-citizens, than they can translate the

Bible for them after a satisfactory fashion, or so read it as to please them. The matter is a deep one, which merely issuing school rules is not going to settle finally, and all parties may as well consider carefully what ground they will take, and why.

The Law of libel in Pennsylvania is such as to imbue the mind of the Philadelphia journalist with caution, it being very like the law that found so much favor in the eyes of Mr. Oakey Hall a year or so ago, and it has been reserved for a New York paper, the *Times*, to print some exposures of the Philadelphia Rings. This class of exposures have lost most of their power to startle the American mind, inured as it is to rings; but these exposures, notwithstanding, are not less than horrible. As a brief indication of the whole state of things in the second city of the Union, we may say that public opinion and the popular will have now almost nothing at all to do with the selection of officers in Philadelphia, and that the Philadelphia leaders pretty much rule not only the city but the whole State. "We don't care a dama who is elected; we are going to count our man in," are words actually used last year by one of these men when he was told that Hartranft would be beaten, and no one doubts that the counters lived up to the spirit and letter of the words when the October count was made. "We did do the thing pretty rough last October," was the remark made the other day to the *Times* correspondent by one of the Ring officials, himself, it is freely charged, holding office through fraud. How they have been able to tie the city hand and foot in this manner was that, by their influence at Harrisburg, they passed through the Legislature a special election law for the government of elections in Philadelphia. In the rest of the State, the judges of election are chosen under the system of minority representation; by the special law, the judges of election in Philadelphia were to be the city aldermen.

A Philadelphia alderman may be described as an excessively noisome politician, whose sole function, outside of practical politics in his ward, is that of a justice of the peace. He is not at all a legislator, as a New York or Boston alderman is. His legal fees as justice amount to little; he can only desire his office for the sake of its illegal fees and its political influence over "roosters," "strikers," and other politicians of similar grade; and he is in practice apt to be a ruffian, capable of any and all sorts of violence and cheating. This he performs by using every art of Tammany, from bloodshed and illegal arrest on election day to ballot-box stuffing and ballot-burning and falsifying the count of votes in all ways conceivable. Among the results of his rule and that of his employers have been the "magnificent majorities" which Philadelphia has rolled up whenever they were required, and as high up as they were required to be rolled; the enormous increase of the city's expenses and debts, so that while our New York Ring's plunder was estimated as equal to a mortgage of 7.02 per centum on the total value of the real estate of the city, the like mortgage in Philadelphia's case is 10.06 per cent.; the deep corruption of the various branches of the municipal and State governments; the prostitution of the Federal patronage; even such degradation as that of the pardoning power when Marcer, City Treasurer, prosecuted into the penitentiary by the Citizens' Reform Association, was promptly pardoned out. The Rings' latest victory was the easy nomination of their candidates last week—a nomination equivalent, doubtless, to an election, if, as they say, they are ready to give 60,000 majority against the constitutional convention's work in case it should prove unsatisfactory.

We cannot say that as yet we see much that is encouraging in the proceedings of the Farmers. They have held several conventions, and succeeded in electing a judge pledged in advance to decide railroad cases against the law, though there seems to be some doubt whether his election is not entirely satisfactory to at least one of the principal railroads within the jurisdiction of his court. They have secured the passage of a freight law, without knowing at all whether it will be advantageous or injurious to them,

and they have given but few signs as yet that they have any idea of the connection between free trade and transportation. Moreover, all their proceedings have been founded upon a belief in a sheer fallacy, that equal charges must be fair charges. The farmer's argument that, if a railroad company charges a dollar for carrying a package a given distance, and a dollar and a quarter for carrying the same package to a different point half as far away, it thereby commits an injustice, is sheer absurdity. It would seem to be obvious, if it were not so evident that it is by no means obvious, that rates of freight do not depend on distance, but on the amount of business done in proportion to the expense of carriage. Between competing points and to and from large cities, the large business makes the rates low; between other points, the light business makes them high. To take distance as an invariable standard is to mistake the character of the whole question. The transportation tax can only be levied by experts, and as yet the farmers have not only not summoned experts to assist them, but spend their time passing resolutions and electing candidates in a blind, passionate sort of way, as if they considered that the matter was beyond the pale of rational argument altogether.

A correspondent writes to us to say that we are making grave mistakes about the farmers, and do not seem to be "working any nearer the truth with the lapse of time." The indiscreet proceedings of some of the agitators ought not, he says, to be cast in the teeth of the good farmers. The bad farmers, it seems, control the organizations which wish to "reverse the Supreme Court"; the good farmers all naturally enough belong to good associations. Of course, we may make mistakes, writing at this distance from the field, but to the Eastern spectator it looks very much as if the difficulty with the good farmers was that they themselves are being "run" just now by the bad farmers. A league has also been formed in Kansas, which is said to have ramifications in Nebraska, Iowa, and Missouri, and to be "making headway" in Texas, Illinois, Indiana, and Ohio. This, too, is a secret body, and has for its primary object "the repudiation of the railroad bonds issued by various county, town, and municipal governments throughout the Northwestern States, and the seizure and common division of lands that have been granted away to corporations by the United States Congress." A membership of 260,000 is "claimed," and the temper of these 260,000 is said to be as revolutionary as their plan of action is comprehensive. One of them is reported to have used this language: "We have arms; we will have justice—peaceably if we can, but we will have it by force of arms if we must." This "League of Justice," as it is called, is in reality probably confined to Kansas, where there has been for some years trouble between one of the railroads and a number of squatters. The dispute is one as to title, and no doubt the squatters would be glad enough to organize a new party on the merits. The membership of 260,000 and the rest of the story seem as yet open to considerable doubt.

College commencements being at full flood just now, the newspapers contain a great deal of educational suggestion of which most that is valuable is embodied in speeches by the chosen orators before societies and the elder alumni at dinners, and a little is to be found in the editorial performances of gentlemen and ladies in the newspapers. To these latter might be commended a very just remark by ex-President Woolsey of Yale. Of a college course he said—and he had in mind the American college, as we have all known it for the last quarter of a century—the valuable fruits are three: character, culture, and knowledge, of which character is best worth having, culture second in rank, and knowledge third. And by separating culture from knowledge, and giving it a higher place, he meant, it would seem, that though the young bachelors have in fulness of defect the little Latin and less Greek which every July so much amuses the young editors and editresses, they nevertheless in acquiring and forgetting this lore have made an acquisition of a value hardly to be overestimated. In this there is no doubt a vast deal of generally unsuspected truth. At Harvard, before the Phi Beta

Kappa Association, Mr. Charles Francis Adams made an address, all of which was very good reading, but of which the portion chief in interest was his plea for increased facilities in our colleges for the study of oratory, and his estimate of the value of an independent press and of the service which private scholars and thinkers may render the public in its columns. To ex-President Woolsey's writings on the *Alabama* dispute reference was happily made as examples of the kind of work the educated man and the press together should oftener do for the good of the country. An almost chivalrous view of the citizen's duty to the common weal, Mr. Adams set forth with dignity and force. In handling his other subject, that of the teaching of oratory, Mr. Adams was equally decided, beset as it is with difficulties. At Yale, again, Mr. Evarts expressed what we suppose is a pretty widespread feeling, in deplored the existence of so many secret societies, which we apprehend do as much with their wire-pulling and log-rolling to prepare the young men for the corruptions of our polities as ever the brilliant debating did to prepare them for causing the halls of Congress to ring with eloquence. Mr. Evarts hoped better things from the revival of the old open societies—and certainly where they found an Evarts to work upon these probably were a means of good. What they have made in their time of a certain other sort of young men, more numerous, is another matter.

The news from Spain is so full of changes of all sorts that it is hardly worth following. Since the resignation of Figueras, cabinet has succeeded cabinet with great rapidity, the Cortes apparently having confidence in nobody but Pi y Margall, who is always the head of each new combination. Here is the history of the last four weeks. The Cortes which established the "Republie," and was largely composed of experienced and well-known men, resigns, leaving a Permanent Commission to look after the Ministry. There is a "crisis," and the Ministry dissolves the Commission by force of arms, and the Commissioners fly. A new Constituent Cortes assembles, composed of new or obscure men, ignorant of all business. Figueras and Castelar resign, and Pi y Margall is requested to form a Ministry, and does so; the Cortes violently disapproves of his list; he resigns; associated with Castelar and Figueras, he tries again, and again fails; Señor Orense, the President of the Cortes, becomes frightened by the Intransigentes and resigns, and Figueras is asked to form a Ministry, and tries, but is pronounced a dangerous and reactionary man by the Intransigentes, and, finding the Radical mob collecting in great force in the streets, flies, and is next heard of at the French frontier. The Republicans try to get up a new combination under Salmeron, but are scared out of it; the Intransigentes surround the Cortes in arms and arrest General Socias, the Captain-General of Madrid, as a traitor; he clears himself, and they let him loose; Pi y Margall tries again, and gets up a Ministry half Intransigente and half allsorts, and demands extraordinary powers; the Cortes approves of his Ministry, but says he may form another if he pleases; under this gentle hint, the ministers again resign; Castelar begins to draft a constitution, and Pi y Margall asks for time to form another Ministry, and, being desirous of making a sure thing of it this time, announces that the programme of the new cabinet will be "Liberty, Order, and Justice"; he gets time and forms one, but the Minister of Marine resigns the first day, and the remainder of the list is not confirmed; the Intransigentes threaten to take up arms if the new Ministry does not suit them, and the Cortes has to be guarded by volunteers.

In the meantime, the troops make it lively for the citizens. The inhabitants of Barcelona appear to be engaged in daily conflicts with the garrison of that place. The people of Malaga, on the other hand, have "risen" and killed their mayor, and at the last news the Seville Radicals had barricaded the streets of that city, with the apparent intention of fighting somebody. In the meantime, mutinies occur in various directions. Many of the Spanish

generals seem to pass their time flying from their own troops in company with a faithful few. The smallest thing develops a military revolt. The Carlists, too, gain ground; they are increasing in numbers and resources, and are supplying themselves with artillery. They have inflicted at least one telling defeat on General Nouvillas in Navarre, and as they are the only men now in Spain who have leaders whom they trust and obey, and who know exactly what they want, the impression gains ground in Paris and London that we shall see Don Carlos on the throne of Spain by the end of the year. The performances of Pi y Margall of course is throwing the weight of property into the Carlist scale, and giving the Spanish creditors abroad an interest in pushing the Pretender. The last of Pi y Margall's finance ministers, Carvajal, is said to be a Madrid oculist of no great eminence in his own profession. Of the state of the finances nothing, or next to nothing, is known. Nearly all the men of wealth and prominence are now over the frontier in France, waiting to see what will turn up. It seems strange that the new name—"Federal Republie"—does not produce better results.

The French have hardly yet got over the "incident" of the circular to the prefects about the press. M. Beulé, the Minister of the Interior, it appears, knew nothing about it until it had been despatched; it was the composition of M. Pascal, his assistant, who was promptly sacrificed, and sent in his resignation while the debate was going on. It was sent in cipher, but, as eighty prefects received it, why it was expected to be kept a secret is hard to understand. It was, from the liberal and constitutional point of view, a tolerably atrocious document, being neither more nor less than a plan for bribing all the provincial editors; but we doubt if the Right was very much shocked by it, or the Left either. Indeed, we believe the Left would, in power, be harder on the press than the Right. The brief periods of their reign in French history have usually been marked by more arbitrary violence than any other. There were some amusing illustrations of this while Gambetta was reading the document and commenting on it in his best rhetorical manner. Talking of what a dreadful thing it was to suppress the *Corsaire*, a Radical journal, as General L'Admirault has just done, "without bringing the editor or director before a judicial authority," he was suddenly confronted by M. de Cumont—an editor whose paper, the *Journal de l'Ouest*, he had himself suppressed by decree—who jumped up and called out: "That's what you did for me, M. Gambetta!" To this the ex-Dictator could only reply, that he would discuss M. de Cumont's case another time. But there is probably nothing in the whole history of hypocrisy more barefaced than a French Radical's lamentations over disregard of the forms of law. The lamentations are always good, and generally timely, but he is not the man to make them. The Assembly has granted its permission for the prosecution of M. Rane, the only leading Communist who has thus far escaped. He had some agreement with M. Thiers, the nature of which was never fully understood, by which he has been hitherto held harmless. M. Courbet is also to be held liable pecuniarily for the overthrow of the Vendôme Column, which is not a bad form of retribution. The Ministry has no doubt been damaged by the press circular, but the Assembly passed to "the order of the day, pure and simple" (laid the matter on the table), and it has blown over for the present.

The fall of Khiva has been at last officially announced. The column from Tjakishlar, from which so much was expected, proved a complete failure, having been overpowered by the heat of the desert, and compelled to retrace its steps after having traversed only a third of the distance, and was even obliged to take refuge at Krasnovodsk, north of its starting-point. The main success appears to have been achieved by the column under General Kauffman, which crossed the river at Shurakan, captured Hasarasp, forty miles from Khiva, pushing the forces of the Khan northward, where they were met and defeated by the Orenburg column under Colonel Lomakine, after which there was nothing for it but flight or surrender. The Khan is said to have made his escape.

THE SPANISH PROBLEM.

THE news from Spain, which we have imperfectly summed up in another column, becomes more and more interesting, from the close resemblance of many of the leading features of the crisis to those of the first French Revolution. In both cases we have a people who for centuries have regulated their lives by loyalty to the king and church, released completely from allegiance to both, and left to discover, as best they may, some other object of homage or basis of polity. In France, the process of liberation, though long preparing, was attended with great violence, mainly owing to a kind of delirium produced in the popular mind by extravagant expectations as to the results of the change. The experience of eighty years of revolutions, in all parts of the world, combined with greater sobriety of temperament, prevents the Spaniards from going into any of the ecstasies which attended the overthrow of the French monarchy, besides which, the nation has been relieved of its old bonds, little by little, by a long series of convulsions. Kings, nobles, and priests have passed half a century in losing their hold on the popular respect and affection, and the army has taken just as long to secure the control of the government. So that, when at last all attempt to preserve either the monarchy or the state church is given up, and the nation is fairly launched on the ocean of experiment, even without military restraint, the process is a much less frightful one than that which France witnessed between 1789 and 1795.

Nevertheless, we have many of the most striking traits of the French crisis. The great nobles and generals and leading politicians all connived at the overthrow of the monarchy, in the person of Amadeus, and all doubtless believed firmly that they would be able, if they were obliged to establish a republic, to establish one of which they would have the direction. The Cortes which proclaimed it indeed contained a large proportion of whatever political talent and experience Spain possessed. But the Republic was hardly set up when the revolutionary sieve began to work in the old French fashion. The Commission which the Cortes appointed to superintend the Ministry during the recess was soon dissolved by violence, and the members forced to fly for their lives at the dictation of an armed mob, and the Ministry left to reign supreme. When the new or Constituent Cortes was elected, it contained hardly any of the old members, and was composed in the main of obscure men, the notables of the Radical clubs or the more violent and outspoken local demagogues. For them even the compliant and hopeful Castelar and Figueras were too easy-going, so they were driven out of office, and a new idol set up in their stead in the person of Pi y Margall; but after three or four attempts he found himself unable to form a cabinet to please his masters, as the Red element—or, in other words, the more ignorant and violent—insisted on a larger share in the administration than even he could face. At the present writing, the news is that the next stage has been entered on, by the attempt of the armed clubs to withdraw the formation of the cabinet from the control of the legislature altogether, and assume it themselves, rifle in hand. Of a piece with this is the news that Figueras also has been obliged to fly as over-moderate, and every student of French history will find many of his recollections freshened by learning that Castelar, the eloquent orator and friend of humanity, with large expressive eyes, is busy in his modest apartment, amid all this tumult, in drafting a constitution. He is working at it as diligently as if it were a magazine article, and indeed we need have no hesitation in predicting for it a sale of several editions. It is noteworthy, too, that each successive attempt of Pi y Margall's to frame an administration results in the appearance on the surface of men less known to fame, until at last the most disordered national finances in Europe are put in charge of a Madrid oculist. The picture is completed, and most of its lessons enforced, by the collection on the French frontier as *émigrés* of nearly all the leading men of Spain—soldiers, politicians, financiers, and nobles—where they are hatching plots, some in the interest of Don Carlos and some of a military dictatorship under Serrano; and, to crown all,

the army is gradually breaking up into disorderly and dangerous mobs, against which the citizens have to defend themselves sword in hand. The proceedings of the Cortes, too, consist mainly of the proposal of schemes of reform of the most sweeping character, in which not only the national traditions, but vested interests of all kinds, are treated as nullities, and yet through which there runs that vein of lofty humanitarian indifference to material surroundings which gave a certain sublimity to the maddest freaks of the French Terrorists.

If, however, we attempt to predict the future course of the Spanish Revolution by reference to that of France, we find that the element which undoubtedly saved France from prolonged anarchy, and preserved her nationality in full vigor, and enabled her eighty years later to astonish the world by the splendid display of recuperative power which we are to-day witnessing, is wanting in the Spanish problem. Order was evoked out of chaos in France, the altar of duty and self-sacrifice again set up, the habit of co-operation restored, and the sense of national pride roused and cherished, by the attack of the Allies. The threat of foreign invasion for the purpose of undoing all that had been done, touched the popular heart, and made the reorganization of the army, the revival of discipline, and the establishment of the conscription possible. Military success did the rest. The gigantic wars of the Empire, following on the heroic wars of the Republic, during which the French standards entered every Christian capital on the European Continent, made the humblest peasant proud of being a Frenchman and eager to share in the national efforts. It made military obedience and military valor substitutes for the old loyalty and religion, and they, if not the highest form of moral stimulus, at least took men out of their petty personal concerns, raised their eyes beyond the boundaries of their farm or shop, and supplied them with an ideal of life in which death at the call of others played a prominent and glorious part. This was undoubtedly a barbarous mode of resuscitation, but it sufficed. It saved French society, reorganized it, and gave it something in the nature of a soul, and gave France an army of which that last and worst thing has never yet been said—that it would not obey its officers.

All this is so far lacking in Spain. Europe looks coldly and jeeringly on at Spanish troubles, and no more thinks of meddling in them than of paying her national debt. The Carlists, who are now slowly winning their way to the capital, are Spaniards, and apparently the most enthusiastic, believing, and energetic Spaniards to be found, and there seems to be no such zeal for the Republic as to make their presence or their success unendurable to the mass of the people; if there were, they must have been driven from Spanish soil months ago. From what quarter Spanish deliverance is to come it is therefore hard to see; most probably, from the frantic eagerness for quiet and security which a prolonged experience of disorder is sure to breed at last in every civilized people which has ever tasted these blessings. The various experiments of the Irreconcilables must work themselves out before long, and then, if Don Carlos has not already seized the crown, some means will be found, under the guidance of the social instinct, if of nothing else, of arming the government, whatever it may be, with the power of giving its commands the force of laws, and of fulfilling the first of its duties. But, then, this view does not carry us very far into the future.

THE PROPER STUDY OF MANKIND.

AS is natural and proper, we engage every year at this period in vigorous discussion of the subject of collegiate education. Some hundreds of speeches are delivered, and some hundreds of articles written about it, *après* of several dozen of college commencements. There is, of course, the usual amount of doubting on the part of "practical men" as to whether a young man gains anything by going to college. Look at Jones, they say, the successful broker, and Smith, the great railroad operator, and Brown, the distinguished politician—none of them ever went to college, and yet see how happy and successful they are. For a long while "the practi-

eal men" had the collegians ranged against them in a solid body. But of late years they have been reinforced by men who set a high value on education, and especially on college education, who do think that four or five years may be better spent in a university than in an office or store, but who maintain that the kind of education universities impart is not the right kind; that, in short, it is by far too literary, and ought to be wholly or mainly scientific; that time spent in learning what dead men have said is well-nigh wasted; and that what we need to study is nature—her laws and processes. Astronomy, geology, chemistry, botany, physiology, biology, should occupy a young man's mind in his early years. It is from studies of this kind that he will really learn to observe, to reason, and to be happy by adapting himself to his surroundings. Literature he had better let alone. The only solid thing in the whole range of human perception is natural science, the only thing that does not deceive and lead astray. It teaches us to prolong life, to avoid disease, to multiply the sources of human comfort and safety. The reply of the collegians to these assaults has been becoming yearly more feeble. Some of them still maintain as stoutly as ever that the study of literature is as good a means of mental discipline as any other, but the main body have been resigning themselves year by year, some sadly, some hopefully, to the infusion of a larger and larger proportion of science into college training; and the spectacle of their retreat is at this moment filling thousands of minds all over the country with a vague expectation of wonderful changes in human society, as the result of the irruption of large bodies of young men and women into laboratories and museums.

Now, we are not going at this time of day to question the claims of scientific men on the gratitude of mankind. We all know what they have done for the world within the last two centuries. It is useless, too, to deny the value of scientific education as a means of cultivating the observing and reasoning faculties. There has been a great deal said on these points by ardent votaries of nature, and most of it is true, but there is much of it that needs limitation and qualification; and we are reminded by some of the suggestions in Mr. Adams's speech the other day at Harvard of the great one-sidedness into which many of us have been led in our theories of education, by the passionate propagandism in which some of the followers of Huxley and Tyndall have of late years indulged. It is assumed in nearly all that many of them say about education, that it is with nature only that man has to struggle in the pursuit of happiness, and that if he can only discover what to eat, drink, and avoid, how mines may best be worked, and crops raised, and distance traversed, and storms foreseen, and the state of the markets transmitted, he will have solved the problem of living. This view has naturally been a very taking one, and has during the last thirty years made a strong impression on the popular mind, so well has it fallen in with the prevailing tastes and tendencies. It furnished to a commercial age exactly what it needed to give it peace of mind and self-respect, by making it appear that the development of material resources was man's great work on earth and the one for which his youth should be passed in preparing.

It now begins to be discovered, however, that no matter how successful we may be in wresting her secrets from nature, or how familiar we make ourselves with her processes, or however conscientiously we may adapt our lives to her requirements, the best scientific education after all only half fits us for the battle of life, and for the simple reason that the battle has to be fought not only with hard, inexorable physical surroundings, but with very troublesome and mysterious social surroundings. In other words, in making a career we have to deal with our brother man as well as with earth and air and water. Let us mine never so successfully, we have to settle with the crowd at the mouth of the shaft before we can carry home our earnings. Let us manufacture never so deftly, we have to establish a rule of distribution before our science or our dexterity does us any good. Let us build railroads as we may, we have to come to an agreement as to who shall work them, and what

he shall receive, before they profit us. Heat and light and electricity and steam are great monarchs, but they cannot raise us out of grovelling barbarism, unless we can come to some understanding with our neighbors as to the ends and modes of living. The study of man, therefore, is really the most important of all studies, and must always continue to be so. Nothing can take its place in any curriculum. People must learn how to live in society before they can get any lasting benefit from science, and before they can have and retain anything worth the name of art; and this they cannot do without observing human nature as it is, and without making themselves acquainted with the past experience of the race.

Now the past experience of the race is found in literature, and languages, and laws, and monuments, or, in other words, in things of which our physicists are apt to make light, but to the diligent study of which, nevertheless, physicists are largely indebted for their existence and their influence; and it can hardly be denied that what we are suffering from in this country just now is rather too little study of man's doings and too great study of nature's. For want of even a passable acquaintance with human experience, our legislation is a mass of folly and blunderings. History and political economy and jurisprudence are neither more nor less than a catalogue of the results of experiments in living made by many generations of men, which the art of writing has preserved for our benefit; but to two-thirds of our legislators they are sealed books. People would laugh mightily if Mr. Boutwell were to say he cared nothing about Euclid and the "Principia" and would not read them, and could get up a geometry and astronomy of his own; but how many laugh when he says there is no science of finance or political economy, or, in other words, that the attempts made by a hundred generations to hit upon the best methods of producing and exchanging and managing corporate revenues, contain neither warning nor instruction for the inhabitants of the town of Groton?

The fact is that scientific education, as the phrase is usually employed, has been rather overdone than neglected; we do not mean in colleges simply, but in society at large. We have been devoting ourselves too much to the extraction of comfort from natural laws to the neglect of our social relations, and the consequence has been a decline in the art of government, which begins already to inflict paralysis on our material industry. Scientists are very valuable, but they are neither jurists nor administrators, and jurists and administrators are not made by laboratories or museums, but by the diligent study of man, both past and present. Far from occupying themselves too much with what "dead men" have said and done, colleges do not, in our opinion, occupy themselves nearly enough. If they do not manage to put our young men more thoroughly in possession of the efforts, failures, and successes of our forefathers, in all fields of human activity, we shall find our scientific achievements at the present day taking more and more of the character of Dead-Sea fruit, and shall ourselves more and more sink into the position of well-fed operatives, superintended and paid by luxurious sharpers. It is well to know how the orbit of the planets was discovered, how the binomial theorem was worked out, and how the constitution of the sun was revealed; but all this is useless, or will prove so before long, unless we know also by what struggles and devices and labors we, "the heirs of all the ages," have come to be what we are; by what arts nations have been built up and maintained; by what passions, and hopes, and fears, and aspirations, and temptations the generations that have gone before us have been sustained or harassed in their brief march through the sunlight.

It has to be remembered, too, that there is growing up about scientific education a considerable amount of the cant by which classical education was once surrounded. It is not possible to give to the great mass of boys who go to college anything that can be called a knowledge of science. A smattering of the rudiments is all that the great majority can bring away with them, under any system of teaching. In days when the greatest philosophers confess their inability to explore even one small field in the great domain of nature, there is something almost ludicrous in the pictures which are

occasionally drawn of the advantages which would result to the world if boys and girls would only work in a laboratory, or geologize, or botanize between the ages of eighteen and twenty-two. The fruitful toilers in scientific fields must always be exceedingly few in number, and the great mass of men, college-bred as well as others, must always be content to take on trust what these few tell them. The very most that schools and universities can hope to do for the main body of their pupils is to familiarize them with scientific modes of reasoning, and this work is being already done by popular literature almost as efficiently as any college can do it. In short, one has only to look around at the condition of the modern world, at Spain, France, England, and our own country, and to consider the nature of the problems that press on us for solution, to be satisfied that the most thoroughly *practical* education at this moment, that for which society calls most loudly, is one which will best fit young men to aid in the adjustment of human relations, and in preventing the social machinery from shaking itself to pieces. Savages have corn, and wine, and oil, and iron; the use of civilization is to enable us to eat and drink in peace and thankfulness.

ENGLAND.

LONDON, June 13, 1873.

THE subject which ostensibly excites the greatest interest at the present moment is our expected visit from the Shah of Persia. I sincerely hope that our distinguished visitor does not read English, and that his interpreters make a careful selection of newspaper articles for his edification, otherwise I fear that he will come to the conclusion that the British public regards him from a distinctly comic point of view. He is, of course, to be received with all due ceremonies, and we are to show him our very prettiest toys, but somehow we cannot quite suppress our sense of the ludicrous. We are doubtless very wrong, but we cannot help it. The gorgeous costume of an Eastern monarch is in every way more becoming than the black hats and frock-coats of European usage; but nobody could walk down the Strand in such a costume without exciting the jeers of the street-boys, and there is something of the street-boy even in respectable journalists. It should be rather piteous and pathetic than absurd to watch the representative of an ancient civilization, bewildered, like an owl in daylight, by the clamors of our restless and ungracious crowds. Unluckily, few people have much delicacy of feeling. They twitch the poor old monarch by the beard (metaphorically speaking, of course), slap him on the back, and tell him with sufficient plainness that he is a useless and ridiculous old object, whose best chance for continued existence is to become our humble servant and imitator. Perhaps, as a matter of taste, one would wish that such poetical figures might always be surrounded by an atmosphere of appropriate associations; they look better in the twilight of the East than in the broad commonplace glare of Berlin and London, and, in short, commit as great a fault as a ghost who should show himself in the muddy streets instead of confining himself to his haunted mansion. Meanwhile, writers of leading articles are studying their encyclopedias, and filling themselves with an appropriate armory of allusions from the 'Arabian Nights,' and we hope that they will indulge as little as possible the insulting curiosity of the coarser kind.

* The Shah, however, and his experiences here may be left to the imagination of your readers. If they wish for full particulars, couched in glowing language, they may turn to the *Daily Telegraph*, which will doubtless adorn its pages with gems of rhetoric calculated to harmonize with the Shah's diamond-covered coats. I turn to a more commonplace subject. The Parliamentary session is dragging itself along with less than the ordinary excitement. This Parliament, in fact, is running to seed, and showing the decrepitude which heralds a speedy dissolution. And yet one can hardly regret the circumstance. If Mr. Gladstone had succeeded in passing his bill for the Irish University, we should have had a much more amusing series of incidents. There would have been vehement protests on all sides and appeals to popular indignation, and the House of Lords would have once more undergone the process of being bullied into submission. All that trouble has been saved, at the price, it is true, of leaving a very awkward question still unsettled. But then, we have really some compensation in the fact that we seem to have a chance of passing at least one useful bit of legislation. Owing to the absence of other excitement, the Judicature Bill seems to be making fair headway, and to be destined to pass without serious mutilation. English law is a subject upon which it is so difficult for a layman to speak without falling into some grotesque blunder that it seldom

attracts much popular interest. By an unlucky combination of circumstances, the evil tends to propagate itself. We know in a general way that some reform is much needed; that some kind of simplification might be effected if our leaders would only make up their minds to set honestly to work; and that an immense saving of money, labor, and time might be effected. But then, if the complexity of our system is a reason for demanding reform, it supplies also a reason for warning off all popular reformers. One must possess so much technical knowledge before one can speak with authority upon the subject, that agitators prefer to take to some easier and more telling subject of popular declamation. It sometimes seems as if we should have to wait until enough grievances had been accumulated to produce not a reform but a summary revolution. As, however, for the moment the more exciting topics have passed out of discussion, some attention has really been devoted to passing a measure which will effect a considerable improvement, and, it is hoped, lead the way to more. The consolidation of the various courts, the abolition of the chief part of the appellate jurisdiction of the House of Lords, the introduction of a uniform system of procedure, are considerable steps, which will help towards the amalgamation of law and equity, and ultimately, it may be hoped, to a coherent system of codification. A great deal of jealousy has, of course, been excited upon particular questions, and long controversies have been carried on between common-law and chancery barristers. Still, if we cannot quite say that the unanimity of the lawyers is wonderful, it is more than we had any right to expect; and the fog end of the session will be turned to good account by the passage of a measure of reform far wider and more complete than any which has been proposed for many years. I am indeed quite incompetent to express any judgment as to the details of the measure under discussion, and I profess only to repeat what seems to be the general opinion on the subject. Whether the bill be or be not satisfactory, one is at least glad to see Parliament occasionally occupied upon a serious measure of reform which is not dictated to it by the pressure of speeches from the hustings.

It is not very likely that this comparative freedom from legislation of the sensational kind will long be preserved. More exciting matters are in the background. The old educational quarrel, for example, has by no means finally died out, and Mr. Forster made a statement last night which was far from satisfying his opponent. The conflict of opinion grows more irreconcilable, if not actually warmer. The school-boards created by Mr. Forster's act have built schools enough to supply a large proportion of the existing deficiency, if only the children could be coerced or persuaded to enter them. Unluckily, this is just where the difficulty occurs. Many of the school-boards have made laws for the attendance of the children, and more or less effect has been produced. But, then, if poor children are forced into school, their fees must be paid for them; as they cannot be forced into a school where an obnoxious religion is taught, their parents must be allowed to choose for them, and thus denominational schools will in one form or other receive assistance from the rates. This is the result which the Dissenters and Secularists cannot digest. The Church of England having long had possession of the ground, most children would naturally go to Church of England schools, and thus, undoubtedly, the Church would support its school system by the help of the state. How far this is any great grievance, or a grievance for which it is worth while seriously to obstruct the working of the act, is a point upon which there is an interminable controversy; and each party accuses the other of intolerance and indifference to our educational necessities. Mr. Forster is doomed to attempt the thankless task of satisfying both parties; and, as it seems practically impossible to devise any system which shall hold the balance perfectly even between the rival sects, and as they cry out indignantly at the slightest real or supposed tendency of the balance in either direction, the chances of his giving universal satisfaction are very small. At present, the League, which represents the Dissenters, is in a very discontented state, and the small bid which he made for their support last night seems doomed to a contemptuous rejection.

The danger, however, of alienating the Dissenters and the Secularists, though it may be serious enough in regard to the interests of the ministry, is comparatively insignificant. People are slightly tired of these educational squabbles for the moment, and are inclined to think that reformers might spend their energies in a more practical direction than in wrangling over the precise set of dogmas to be taught to children who, for the most part, are and will probably remain indifferent to all dogmas whatever. The more threatening difficulty is that connected with the labor question. The performance of the Chipping-Norton magistrates has excited a great amount of bitterness. The punishment inflicted was not very severe, but the circumstances were unfortunately picturesque. There is something unpleasant in the spectacle of a couple of clergymen sending a lot of ignorant women to prison, not for actual violence, but for protesting against the supplanting of their husbands by other laborers. A country squire might be pardoned for an over-zealous vin-

dication of the rights of his class; but the clergy are in theory at least the protectors of the poor, and should be the last to give a harsh interpretation even to necessary laws. A good deal of indignation has therefore naturally been expended upon the magistrates, and upon clerical magistrates in general. There is, however, a still stronger feeling behind. The more vehement Radicals declare that the clergy have indeed acted badly enough in this case, but that they have only done what judges of greater name and of more legal training have done before. According to such agitators, the Chipping-Norton magistrates are being unfairly made into scapegoats for the sins of their superiors. The attempt to rouse indignation against a clerical magistracy is an attempt to turn a righteous indignation upon a false scent. The true grievance is not that clergymen should have inflicted a trivial though an unjust punishment in a particular case, but that the law should allow such punishment to be inflicted in any case. The injury done to the women in Chipping-Norton was trifling compared to the injury inflicted upon the gas-stokers, on whom Mr. Justice Brett imposed a sentence of twelve months' imprisonment. It is therefore demanded that the law which enables laborers to be imprisoned for a breach of contract should be summarily repealed. Mr. Frederick Harrison, who is the ablest spokesman of the agitators, maintains that the existing law is grievously unjust in its operations. A working-man who refuses to fulfil his contract is summarily imprisoned; a master would, in the same case, escape with a fine. The answer, of course, is easily given. The law, it is replied, is really impartial, and workmen are more frequently punished than masters simply because they more frequently break the law. It would be equally plausible to say that a law against petty larceny was unfair because it generally affects poor men instead of men with plenty of money in their pockets. Imprisonment is often the only punishment which can be inflicted upon a man who lives from hand to mouth, and is therefore fitly employed against a poor man when it would be unduly severe against a rich man. Whatever the justice of such arguments and of the controversy as to the working of the law of conspiracy, it is plain that such questions occupy a much larger space in the mind of the working-man than purely political debates in which he has no immediate concern. There is a natural feeling that very little has been done by the Liberal Government for the benefit of the working-classes whose votes brought them into power. The disestablishment of the Irish Church, the alteration of the land-laws, and the abolition of purchase may have been very good things in themselves, but they have only the most indirect influence upon the comfort of the English laborer. Consequently, a great many of the laboring class are beginning to ask whether a Whig is a much better ruler than a Tory; and whether they should not force upon the next Parliament a very different order of questions from those with which its predecessor has been occupied. The working-man, in fact, holds that, though he has a vote, he has as yet had very little influence upon legislation, and that a more thoroughgoing change is required than has yet been effected. The consequences of such a feeling generally diffused through the large centres of population are difficult to calculate. This only may be said, that, considering how many bitter struggles between laborers and capitalists are spreading over the country, we may not improbably be on the eve of social agitations of a serious character. The immediate effect in the political world is a sense of general uncertainty. Though Mr. Gladstone has never shown greater ability than in the present session, his hold on the country has certainly not gained in strength, and Liberal agents speak with ominous forebodings of a probable loss of seats at the next elections sufficient effectually to turn the tables. After the long possession of power by their party, a short stay on the Opposition benches might possibly convert the present leaders to views more in harmony with the extreme wing of their nominal supporters. But it is useless to speculate on these remoter problems.

Notes.

DR. KONER'S annual list of geographical publications, of all kinds, from November, 1871, to December, 1872, appears in No. 42 of the Journal of the Berlin Geographical Society (New York: L. W. Schmidt). It occupies nearly 100 pages. Petermann's *Mittheilungen* for May 26 gives a railroad and steamboat map of the German Empire and adjacent countries.

—A number of guide-books appropriate to the season lie upon our table. Mr. Henry Morford's 'Short-Trip Guide to Europe' (New York: Sheldon & Co.) offers, in a very frank and even blunt way, and with a wholesome disregard of the susceptibilities of a certain class of American tourists, much sound advice. The edition for 1873 has been revised chiefly with reference to the Vienna Exposition, but we cannot say that it has been particularly well done. The editor shared the common hope, rather than belief, when

he wrote (p. 212 b): "There is no doubt that in the ability and energy of Gen. Thos. B. Van Buren, the U. S. Commissioner-General to the Exposition, all American interests entrusted to his hands will find the best attention." A pretty full list of the American exhibitors is given, and a political and commercial map of Europe accompanies the volume. For Vienna, and for much of the route thither, Mr. C. W. De Bernardy's 'Hand-book to Vienna and the Exposition' (Philadelphia: Porter & Coates) will prove more useful than the foregoing. It gives railway distances and fares, names the best hotels, and the personnel of the American consulate in each place. The annexed plan of Vienna seems to have been rendered indistinct by reduction from the original. 'The Atlantic Coast Guide' (New York: E. P. Dutton & Co.) professes to be a companion for the tourist between Newfoundland and Cape May. From Newport, south, however, it is quite perfunctory, the editor being at his best in the more northern waters, of which he speaks from personal experience. The chapter on the Isles of Shoals compares very favorably with Mr. J. Scribner Jenness's 'Historical Sketch' of the same islands (New York: Hurd & Houghton) in its gleanings from the old records of this interesting group. It is the most elaborate in the book, that on Grand Menan being next in fulness of treatment. Mr. John B. Bachelder's 'Gettysburg: What to see and how to see it' (New York: Lee, Shepard & Dillingham), we judge answers well the needs of the visitor to that epochal battle-field; but the gain in clearness would have been very great if the mostly worthless and meaningless "illustrations" had given place to a few diagrams explaining the features of each of the three days' fighting. Mr. John E. Lester's 'The Atlantic to the Pacific' (Boston: Shepard & Gill) is composed of letters to a Providence newspaper, and is a very dry and unimaginative account of the trip to and from the Pacific Coast. However, a "dry" light is sometimes best for seeing things as they are, and this may so far compensate for the lack of Mr. Nordhoff's rosy enthusiasm. After all, we doubt if the book has a sufficient *raison d'être*. We may include in the category of guide-books Dr. Geo. E. Walton's 'Mineral Springs of the United States and Canada' (New York: D. Appleton & Co.) and Dr. J. J. Moorman's 'Mineral Springs of North America' (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.), especially the former, which indicates routes and hotels. The comparative medical value of these works we will not undertake to determine. Both are well provided with maps, Dr. Moorman's also with lithographic views of several resorts. The latter uses a geographical, Dr. Walton a therapeutic, classification; and Dr. Moorman is most at home when treating of the Virginia springs, to which more than half his book is devoted.

—The third volume of the Ninth Census deals with the statistics of agriculture, manufactures, mining, and fisheries, and also exhibits tables of wealth, taxation, and public indebtedness, and of occupations. The several prefaces to these topics are distinguished by nothing more than the perfect frankness with which the Superintendent points out the defects of the enumeration, and condemns the law to which most of them are attributable. Thus, in his remarks on the tables of Manufacturing Industry, he declares that "the census returns of capital invested in manufactures are entirely untrustworthy and delusive"; and further, "It is a pity, and may almost be said to be a shame, that statistical information, in many respects of high authority and accuracy, should be discredited by association with statements so flagrantly false, even to the least critical eye." This is refreshing talk from a Government official, and it is to be hoped that our Congressmen may have the benefit of it. But over against the chances of their seeking out in these quarto volumes and studying General Walker's clear, concise, and pithy résumés, there is the chance of none of them being alive or still Congressmen seven years hence, and the likelihood that after vain efforts to get an improved census act we shall fall back upon the imperfect and mischievous statute of 1850. The suggestion has recently been made for England, that a census bureau should be created with a permanent organization, and the reasons in favor of this are so obvious and so obviously applicable to our own case as well as to England's, that we wish active steps might be taken to bring it about. We need not have more frequent censuses, though we might have them if we chose; but our preparation for them would be vastly improved, and the necessary legislation easily obtained. The agricultural statistics in the third volume are illustrated by five shaded and colored charts—of wheat, corn, cotton, hay, and dairy products; and by a large geological map of the United States, folded separately. Minnesota, Iowa, and California are the great wheat-growing States; New York and Vermont lead in dairy products; cotton creeps up into Southeastern Missouri, "Egypt," and Southwestern Missouri, and where its dominion ends that of hay begins.

—In practising the profession of journalism, we have often found it agreeable to cease for a moment from exposing the ignorance and vice of our

fellow-journalists, to turn away also from reading in the columns which those gentlemen control how big a thief and liar conducts this journal, and to direct the eye of the mind on the fair picture of what journalism is going to be by-and-by. Sometimes the limners are "professionals" and perfectly well-known offenders, and sometimes they are laymen; but that makes no difference in the character of the picture. In all cases, the editorial fraternity of the next generation is going to be a wonder. The ransomed saint, when his spirit takes its flight, will not be any nicer nor any wiser than the coming newspaper editor. A Dr. Jackson is the latest of these artists whom we have happened upon. He appears to be a New Yorker, and addresses his work to the editors of the Youkers *Gazette*, the Le Roy *Gazette*, and the Dansville *Advertiser*. The Doctor says that he who seeks to fill the editorial chair must be a person "who cherishes with great enthusiasm a love for whatever is noble and true." His editorial business, in which he will delight, will be to disseminate "whatever is original in thought, artistic in feeling, catholic in sentiment, powerful in truth, rich in beauty, or divine in genius," and to preach "the elevation of the masses and the good of humanity." Every year he will "pass into higher ranges of knowledge and truth, and occupy advanced positions." And to do this he will not only set forth the true and noble in his newspaper; he will represent them in his daily life. But can he do so "while as yet he lives on a plane of habit or of mere physical gratification?" We have found it a rule often holding good, that after we have heard a medical gentleman say as much as we have quoted from Doctor Jackson concerning "the plane of habit" and "the true and the noble," and kindred matters, it is as well to ask him whether he does not wish us to leave off eating meat. We then, without further occupying his valuable time, can let him know what is our practice upon that point, and what it will probably continue to be. Doctor Jackson, observing that "men of thought need mental sublimation," would not allow of our eating "the flesh of animals" except "in emergent circumstances"; the coming editor will feed on "grains in their various preparations, fruits, and the better and more nutritious classes of vegetables." What he will drink is not stated; but not any tea, coffee, light or heavy wines, distilled or fermented liquors. Sun-baths will be good for him, but "he should not go into the woods unless he wishes to pass into reverie." If he is a woman, he will not show that "incapacity for extended motherhood" which is now notorious among the female editors and correspondents of the American press; and his children will not exemplify that change "in form of build" in the direction of hydrocephalic indigestion which the Doctor sees in many of "the descendants of the oldest families in our country."

—Mr. Oscar T. Martin, of Springfield, Ohio, "formerly editor of the *Advertiser* of that place," takes, it seems, a different view of the noble profession of journalism from that expressed by the Rev. Robert Collyer and Dr. Jackson. Mr. Collyer recently delivered a sermon on this subject, in which he described the journalist as one who holds the people of America and other countries in the hollow of his hand and moulds them to his will. He sits above, at the centre of thought and intelligence, a sort of *Deus ex typis*; far beneath, busy man, in his constitutional conventions, his legislatures, his halls of Congress, his Boards of Trade, his corporations, his theatres, his music-halls, and his beer-gardens, works out slowly but surely the editorial will. Mr. Martin, however, does not consider this a correct picture, for at a recent journalistic convention held at Columbus he said:

"There is not an editor here or elsewhere who is not writhing in chains, who does not daily choke back sentiments of an honest heart from fear or favor. This is a bitter truth, but none the less truth. The offal that is thrown to you, in the shape of county printing, buys your silence, just as the midnight burglar buys the silence of the faithful watch-dog with meat that is thrown to it. Neither can bark; their mouths are full. You ride free to this convention over the railroad of a corporation notorious for its bad management. A 'complimentary' to the theatre is the paltry price paid for an unfaithful and untrue critique of the performance; and you sell yourself, body and soul, for an infinitesimally less sum than Judas received for the betrayal of his Master. The corrupt award of public contracts, for which the exorbitant bid of a favorite, on slim security, is preferred to the conscientious bid of a master workman, is not exposed by the journal that advertises the bids. The fraud and corruption of your municipal bodies is not unmasked, because you are a member of the ring. You quake with holy horror at the only symptom of virtue manifested by our legislators, in reforming our postal relations, whereby your privileges may be abridged, and break out in bad eruption of double-leaded indignation, with frowning black head-lines, over the salary steal of your poverty-stricken Congressmen. On the title-page of your paper you fly such flaunting lies as 'The freedom of the press is the safeguard of the nation,' 'Truth crushed to earth,' etc., and you prostitute the patriot's motto, 'Give me liberty or give me death.' You are bound hand and foot. The remorseless clamps of clique, party, and corporation hold you fast."

The only notice we have seen taken of this outspoken address is in the columns of a brother journalist of this city, who says that there is one editor in Ohio "justly known as the truly good man," to whom this criticism does

not apply. "He never withholds the truth from his readers, and never himself tells anything but the truth, although we grieve to say he sometimes allows the thundering lies which his wicked partners habitually compose to go forth under the sanction of his honored name."

—The Committee appointed by the Bar Association of this city to examine the New York system of law reporting has made an interesting report. There are no less than 348 volumes of reports of cases in this unhappy State (about one-sixth of those of the whole country), and of these 348, a large part, owing to "multiplication of reports of the same case," "indiscriminate publication of whatever is presented," "prolixity," and "reckless reporting," are very worthless. The Committee, noticing one of the well-worn commonplaces of Judge Story, to the effect that even in 1821 "the danger seemed to be, not that we shall want able reports, but that we shall be overwhelmed by their number and variety," says that,

"If anything could draw the spirit of the great commentator back to the earth, it might well be a wish to retract his opinion as to the ability of the reporters; and if anything were needed to keep it away, the 2,000 volumes of our decisions might have this effect."

As an illustration of the "multiplication of reports of the same case," the Committee shows that in the volumes of "Howard's Practice Reports," from vols. 35 to 43, there are

		1 case which is reported	7 times in the various reports.
2 cases	are	6	" "
7 "	"	5	" "
33 "	"	4	" "
73 "	"	3	" "
109 "	"	2	" "

The Committee also says that two-thirds of the cases reported are "worthless," it being the custom of most of the reporters to publish opinions of inferior courts, not only after they have been affirmed by superior courts, in which case they are of little or no value, but also after the judgment has been reversed below. Besides this, we may mention one of their idiosyncrasies which has come under our own notice—a passion for reporting cases involving long and very complicated statements of fact, but containing no new principle of law whatever—the facts generally so complicated that they never can occur a second time, and the law so simple that there was no time within the memory of man when it was not established. Besides this, there is the prolixity of many of the opinions and the interminable delay of the publication of the reports. As an illustration of the character of some of the reports, the Committee refers to the head-note in the *People v. Parkes*, 15 How. Pr. R. 557, which begins, "This little case shows what a justice of the peace can do when he tries," and the disquisition on cider in the foot-note to 19 How. Pr. R. 266. There is also to be found in 20 How. Pr. R. 95, "a letter from a former judge of the Common Pleas to Mr. Howard, acknowledging writing an opinion in the case of *Fox v. Lewis*, but denying that in any sense it resembles the one attributed to him in 19 How. Pr. R. 561. In 16 How. Pr. R. 283 there is a similar letter from a judge of the Supreme Court."

—To explain the causes of this condition of things, the Committee points to the system of reporting now in force—if it can be called a system. There are seven reporters at work in New York, the interest of almost all of whom it is to turn out as many volumes of reports per annum as possible. Some of them are authorized by law; others are volunteers. The result is the existing chaos. The Committee examines the new English system of law reporting—which we have recently discussed—and they lean strongly to the adoption of some such system, though they prefer for the present to circulate their report and receive suggestions on the subject. There is no doubt to our minds that the whole matter of reporting ought to be in the hands of the Bar. The system of State reporting has proved a complete failure, the work, as the Committee truly says, not being of a kind to be well done either by an elective officer, nor by one who, if appointed, goes out of office with changing administrations. On the other hand, the courts ought not to have the appointment, because this makes the reporter necessarily dependent upon the judges whose opinions it is his duty to report without fear or favor. Neither of these objections applies to the superintendence of the work by the Bar, and we trust that the adoption of this method will be recommended by the Bar Association without unnecessary delay. In the only country in which it has been adopted it has proved a great success, while the methods of judicial appointment, and State appointment, and volunteer reporting have all been tried, either in the United States or England, with bad results. The Bar Association have voted to adopt the report and circulate 2,500 copies; the Committee are at a future meeting to report a scheme for the amendment of the present system.

—Urbano Rattazzi, the veteran Italian statesman who passed away on the 5th of June, was buried on the 11th with great circumstance in the

Piedmontese city of Alessandria, his birthplace (1810). Though intensely disliked of late years by the Moderate party in Italy, and though his career as premier is associated with some of the gloomiest events in his country's history—Novara, Aspromonte, Mentana—no one could accuse him of a lack of patriotism, nor deny his great services in promoting the resurrection of Italy. Perhaps his earliest efforts in this direction, when he had Cavour for a colleague and chief, and when his restraining influence was exerted with good effect, were his most useful. As a "precursor" he appeared to better advantage than as a Radical executive, without the well-settled principles and the resolution necessary to the delicate task of government. His admirers say of him, as has been said of Victor Emmanuel, of Cavour, of Garibaldi, of Mazzini, that he "made" Italian unity (*ha fatto l'unità d'Italia*). His opponents reply with an anecdote of Manzoni. Mazzini paid him a visit in 1860, and remarked for their common gratulation on the fact that the two had so long (*durante un pezzo*) been the only persons (*noi due soli*) who believed in this unity, and that now they could say that they were right. The poet, in reply, cited the habit of a chilly friend who, at the first frost in September, used to declare it was going to snow; this he would repeat through each succeeding month, till along in January or February sure enough down would come a heavy snow, and the prophet would exclaim: I told you it was going to! In other words, unity was as inevitable as the return of the seasons. Rattazzi in one respect was without a rival. He was a consummate parliamentarian, and leaves no one behind him to take his place. But then, neither does he leave a coherent and vigorous party, the Opposition being much in the condition of the Democratic party ever since the death say of Stephen A. Douglas.

BARON STOCKMAR.*

CHRISTIAN FRIEDRICH STOCKMAR was born at Coburg, in 1787, of a respectable middle-class family; his patent of nobility was the gift of his friend, King Leopold. He studied the profession of medicine, and was appointed physician-in-ordinary to Prince Leopold of Coburg, afterwards husband of Princess Charlotte of England, and later King of the Belgians. Manifesting a high capacity for politics, he soon gave up his profession, and passed his life as confidential friend and agent, first of King Leopold, afterwards of his nephew, Prince Albert. He seldom held any distinct office or appointment, whether diplomatic or otherwise, but occupied a position somewhat similar to that which used to be known in this country by the disparaging term "kitchen cabinet"—a position which is capable of being abused, but which an able, upright man like Stockmar can make the instrument of valuable services. The peculiar relations of both his patrons to the English royal family gave him almost the character of an English diplomatist, and give his memoirs an especial interest to the English public. English politics, properly speaking, are hardly touched in them; but we meet the English view of Continental politics, and are constantly brought in contact with English statesmen. These volumes contain, therefore, a commentary on most of the important questions of European politics, from Stockmar's active entrance into political life, about 1830, to his death in 1863. During this period he was always behind the scenes of diplomacy, and often an active agent in it; and he was a person of such integrity of character and clear-sighted sagacity that his observations, here recorded, are always instructive, and, if we are not mistaken, contain in more than one instance really new and important information.

The several questions which came into prominence during his time are, as is natural, treated with quite a different degree of fulness, according to Stockmar's greater or less participation in them. The first volume may be said to be devoted to the Belgian question; that is, nearly half the volume is concerned with this, the rest consisting of chapters upon several subjects of general interest, such as happened to fall within the writer's observation down to the year 1838. One of these chapters, upon Leopold's candidature for the throne of Greece, will be read with special interest and instruction. The precise reason why this negotiation fell through has been little understood. It appears that the young prince, afterwards so distinguished for practical sagacity, well-balanced judgment, and even astuteness, allowed himself to be carried away in the beginning of his career by the philhellenic enthusiasm of the day, and to enter with too great eagerness into conditional engagements from which it was afterwards necessary for him to retreat. No doubt his ill success in this enterprise helped to school him to the practical ability that he afterwards displayed; for the time, however, it placed him in a false position, and gave him a bad name in the European courts. No doubt, also, the reputation of his failure followed him in his next enterprise, and rendered his position in Belgium less easy. But he had now learned

from experience, and met with remarkable success in his new and difficult task—in establishing his new kingdom on a sound basis, and guiding it through all the complicated perils of the years that followed.

The attempts at reorganizing Germany after the revolution of 1848 occupy nearly as large a proportion of the second volume as the Belgian affairs do of the first. In these attempts Stockmar himself took an active part—almost the only portion of his career in which he exchanged his advisory and confidential position for one of public responsibility. He declined the position of Minister of Foreign Affairs in the new Empire on the ground of his health, but was a member of the Frankfort Diet, and aided in the movement to the extent of his powers. The account here given of the long consultations and negotiations, which at last resulted in nothing, is interesting, but need not now occupy our attention in detail. Like most sagacious statesmen, Stockmar was convinced that the true policy of Germany was that which has been since adopted—a union under the hegemony of Prussia; the principal practical difficulty residing in the question, What would become of Austria? Here again he was right in his judgment that Austria would withdraw from Germany, although he had some expectation of eventually securing the German provinces of Austria. His views of the historical relation of Austria to the German problem are stated in a letter written in 1849:

"By the territorial arrangement of Germany on which Napoleon built his Rhine Confederation, it was really torn more asunder than had ever been the case before. He divided Germany into three parts, Prussia, Austria, and the Rhineland, as effectually as Poland had been divided. After the fall of Napoleon, the Austrian-Metternich policy took his place. This policy was an attempt to govern Germany again, as before, merely as a means to an end.

"For this end Austria had to acquire a complete supremacy. The natural opponent to this supremacy was Prussia, which was, after the peace, stronger in German elements than Austria. The more Metternich succeeded in upholding the territorial scaffolding of the Rhine Confederation, the more allies he had against Prussia, and the easier it became for him—first, to assume the same position with the princes of the Rhine Confederation which Napoleon had once held, and, secondly, to neutralize the influence of Prussia in the rest of Germany. In this way, Napoleon's position as protector of the Rhine Confederation was perfectly assumed by Metternich; and, with regard to Germany, his position was even stronger than Napoleon's had ever been, from the circumstance that he succeeded in inducing two kings of Prussia to place themselves for thirty-three years in the leading-strings of the Austrian policy. Metternich certainly did not use this supremacy for foreign wars of conquest, as did Napoleon, but for a moral warfare against the influence of Prussia, against the spread of revolutionary doctrines, against constitutional government and Protestantism, and in favor of the Jesuits and absolutism. This policy, just as faulty as had been the former policy of Austria, was certain first to entangle again, and then to ruin, the affairs of Germany. The flood of Democracy which spread over Germany in 1848 is pre-eminently the result of the policy of Austria from 1814 to 1847" (vol. ii., p. 231).

As to the manner in which Prussia was to assume the hegemony of Germany, Stockmar's views were at least striking and original. His plan was that the Prussian territories should form what he called the "immediate imperial territories," having no national existence except as *Germany*, and "ruled without a special Prussian parliament, without a special Prussian administration, by the Prussian king [king no longer], as actual hereditary German Emperor, by means of the German Imperial Parliament and the administrative organization of the German Empire" (p. 243)—very much as the District of Columbia is governed by Congress, only that, of course, these Prussian provinces must have been represented in the Imperial Parliament. The other states, on the other hand, except so far as they should choose to become *immediate* by surrendering their individual sovereignty, would be *mediate*, being governed by the Imperial Parliament just as our States are governed by Congress, and in other respects retaining their local autonomy. A weak feature of this plan, and which would probably have been fatal, as the editor points out (p. 249), is that it calls upon Prussia completely to sink its individuality in the sovereignty of the nation, in consideration of the national advantage and the honor of serving as the central point of the new nation—an abnegation which could certainly not be expected of it.

A very interesting chapter in the second volume gives an account of the affair of the Spanish marriages, which made so much noise at the time, and which Stockmar considers to have been a chief cause of the overthrow of Louis Philippe, as it certainly deserved to be. It would require too long an extract to show fully his grounds for this belief, but it is to Guizot personally that he attributes the bad faith of the French Government at this time; adding that, in his belief, "but for Guizot's arrogance, pride, carelessness, and want of knowledge of men and things, Louis Philippe would have died on the throne, and his grandson would now be king" (p. 229). In his masterly discussion of the policy of the Guizot ministry, he says: "Without their guilt we should have seen, even under the rule of this mistaken sovereign, that an honest constitutional discharge of their duty on the part

* "Memoirs of Baron Stockmar. By his son, Baron E. von Stockmar. Translated from the German by G. A. M. Edited by F. Max Müller." In two volumes. London: Longmans, Green & Co.; Boston and New York: Lee & Shepard. 1873. 12mo.

of the ministers would have converted the fiction of the infallibility of the sovereign into a reality, so that his mistakes and self-will alone could not have effected his own ruin and, at the same time, that of the state. The English kings of the House of Brunswick, and more especially George IV., applied in the same manner all their energies to ruin themselves and the monarchy, but in vain" (p. 218).^{*}

We have mentioned those chapters of the book which are of most importance in the study of the political history of the times. The Belgian affairs and the abortive German Empire were questions in relation to which Baron Stockmar had the closest personal knowledge and interest; the Spanish marriages, the Eastern question, and French relations, also receive light from these memoirs; the Schleswig-Holstein question is only slightly touched, neither do we find much instruction upon the internal affairs whether of Germany, Belgium, or England. His activity was essentially diplomatic. The English court, however, was Stockmar's chief residence for many years; Prince Albert was his pupil in politics, and Queen Victoria was strongly attached to him. The chapters which treat of his relations to the English royal family are probably those of most interest to the generality of readers. In this family he appears to have enjoyed the greatest intimacy until the end of his life.

It will be interesting to see the opinion formed by so keen an observer of some of the leading English statesmen. Of Wellington he says:

"The natural sobriety of his temperament, founded upon an inborn want of sensibility, was unable to withstand the intoxicating influence of the flattery by which he was surrounded. The knowledge of himself became visibly more and more obscured. The restlessness of his activity, and his natural lust for power, became daily more ungovernable. Blinded by the language of his admirers, and too much elated to estimate correctly his own powers, he impatiently and of his own accord abandoned the proud position of the victorious general, to exchange it for the most painful position which a human being can occupy, viz., the management of the affairs of a great nation with insufficient mental gifts and inadequate knowledge. . . . It required the full force and obstinacy of this strange self-deception in Wellington, it required the full measure of his activity and iron persistency, in order at last by a perpetual reiteration of errors and mistakes to create in the people the firm conviction that the Duke of Wellington was one of the least adroit and most mischievous ministers that England ever had" (vol. i., p. 129).

Of Peel :

"His most peculiar and important faculty seemed to me to consist rather in a quick and sure understanding of all the relations of men generally, but especially of their business relations. As understood by him, all high impressions found, as by themselves, their right place, and acquired in the shortest time so true a coherence that the whole and its parts could be surveyed with the greatest clearness. . . . Peel's mind and character rested on moral foundations which I have not once seen shaken, either in his private or his public life. From these foundations rose that never-failing spring of fairness, honesty, kindness, moderation, and regard for others which Peel showed to all men, and under all circumstances" (vol. ii., p. 420).

On the whole, he did not have a very high respect either for English statesmen, as he knew them, or for parliamentary government. "One great scarcity is felt at present in England," he writes, "viz., that of able statesmen. Through it the evil from which we suffer since the Reform Bill, is always becoming greater: I mean the growing omnipotence of the House of Commons, and its interference with things belonging to the executive" (vol. ii., p. 448). And again: "I do not despair, but it is enough to make one low-spirited and afraid, when one considers to what ministers, and to what an absurd, usurping House of Commons, the fate of England is at present entrusted. England will not perish, but it has already lost much of its former position in the world, and the loss may be increased in the next few years" (p. 546). This dislike of parliamentary government is, however, by no means due to a liking for absolutism, but to a feeling that it has destroyed the true constitutional balance—"the line which separates a republic from a constitutional monarchy is not sufficiently appreciated." "This English mania of making all political wisdom to consist in the art of satisfying Parliament, and of tickling it by means of clever speeches, makes me sick." Perhaps there is something in this criticism which we Americans can lay to heart.

LOSSING'S LIFE OF SCHUYLER.*

WE regret that Mr. Lossing has called this work the 'Life and Times of Philip Schuyler.' It is a grave error both of taste and of judgment; for General Schuyler, though an eminent man, does not hold that prominent position as the originator and controller of great events which makes the story of a life the history of an age. During the old French war, he rendered obscure though useful services in the commissariat and at the head of a company. In forcing a full narrative of that war into the 'Life of

Schuyler,' the biographer loses sight of his hero for pages together in order to make room for the thrice-told tales of the death of Lord Howe, the defeat of Dieskau, the disaster of Fort William Henry, and the triumph of Wolf on the Plains of Abraham. This is much to be regretted, for the life of Schuyler, even when strictly confined to its subject, supplies abundant materials for an instructive biography; but it would not have filled half its present space.

General Schuyler holds an important place in the civil history of New York, a still more important one in its military history, and a very interesting one in its social history. We meet him as a leader in the Colonial Assembly, as a subordinate in the old French war, as a commander in the war of Independence, and as a member, both in right of birth and of marriage, of that colonial aristocracy so well described by Mrs. Grant of Laggan. We catch pleasant glimpses of him, also, in those memoirs of the Baronesse de Riedesel, which have so softened the historic truth as to have almost made us forget that her husband was a mercenary, defending an alien cause for gold and rank. In all of these characters, Philip Schuyler appears to great advantage, enjoying in each the respect and confidence of those whose good opinion was most to be desired. We do not think that Mr. Lossing has made as much as he ought to have done of these phases in the life of his hero. They supply the materials for a good deal of spirited narrative and fine historical painting. His personal appearance was striking. His eye and mouth were full of character. His manners were simple and dignified, and had that graceful ease which early familiarity with society and consciousness of position give. In later life, his natural amiability is said to have been sometimes affected by the gout—an hereditary disease, which he bore with heroic fortitude under circumstances which would have broken a common spirit. It is seldom that physical infirmities can be dwelt on at length without awakening a suspicion of mental weakness; but Schuyler bore gout and rheumatism and fever so bravely under the most trying conditions that you instinctively say, This is the stuff whereof heroes are made.

Yet his fate has been a hard one. He was one of those who fall short of their mark, not through shortcomings of their own, but through strange combinations of adverse circumstance. He labored hard for success, but only to see his laurels transferred to an undeserving brow. His early promise was brilliant. A knowledge of Indian life and character was an important element in the education of the young men of those days. He made himself familiar with them, and rendered important services as Indian commissioner. The old French war was a school for him, and, though he does not appear in its history, gave him a practical knowledge of the duties and mechanism of the staff which made things possible for him which would otherwise have lain entirely beyond his reach. When the war of Independence broke out, all eyes were turned to him as peculiarly fitted for the command of the Northern department. Here began a career which promised great glory. The tragedy of Quebec added a new name to the two great names which give such interest to the banks of the St. Lawrence. While Montgomery lived, there was perfect harmony between him and Schuyler, and their letters show how fully each trusted the other. But here began also those difficulties with the New England troops which, in the campaign of 1777, led to an act of great injustice. Little did Schuyler foresee the trials and mortifications that he was preparing for himself when he entered so warmly into the question of the New Hampshire grants. He had studied New England character in the wrong school, and brought some of the antipathies of his Dutch blood to the study. He had aristocratic habits and aristocratic tastes, and was a stern disciplinarian and a rigid enforcer of the distinctions of rank. Graydon has preserved an anecdote of him which shows how he looked down upon Yankee colonels and captains. A New England captain came to Schuyler's quarters on business while the general and his family were at table. "He came in," says Graydon, who despised Yankees, and was a thorough aristocrat himself, "with that abject servility of manner which belongs to persons of the meanest rank. He was neither asked to sit nor take a glass of wine, and, after announcing his wants, was dismissed with that peevishness of tone we apply to a low and vexatious intruder." Schuyler forgot that this "low and vexatious intruder" held a commission from the same authority with himself, was engaged in the same cause, and came to him upon business that arose from their official relations. He probably forgot the "intruder" in the next five minutes, but the despised man did not forget him. It was not, therefore, without blame on his part that the New England troops disliked him. When they accused him of arrogance towards them, they were not altogether wrong; when they denied him their confidence, they followed a common though not a noble instinct; but when they called his judgment and military talents in question, they erred gravely; and when they suggested that he wanted courage, they were guilty of gross slander.

* The Life and Times of Major-General Philip Schuyler. By Benson J. Lossing, LL.D. New York: Sheldon & Co. 2 vols. crown 8vo.

Mr. Bancroft has revived these slanders, and Mr. Lossing has refuted them with a just appreciation of what belongs to history and what to the chronicle of scandals.

Mr. Lossing has not altogether escaped the *lues Boswelliana*. We know of no authority for attributing Hamilton's early perception of the defects of the Confederation to Schuyler. Mr. Lossing indeed writes:

"This was a movement towards nationality which Schuyler hailed with joy; yet it was much short of what he wished in its scope and tendency. He earnestly desired a national convention, to decide upon some positive measures for that kind of centralization seen in our National Constitution which should make the Congress the supreme head of the Republic. So earnest were his convictions and so urgent were his arguments that he inspired the active mind of his son-in-law, Alexander Hamilton, with that ardor for such centralization which ever afterwards distinguished him."

This is a strong statement, and Mr. Lossing must not accuse us of undue scepticism if we ask for his proofs. It has always been regarded as one of the marvels of Hamilton's mind that he came into public life at nineteen with convictions already formed and a judgment already ripened. We know of nothing to justify a change of opinion. With all his shortcomings, however, Mr. Lossing has made a valuable contribution to American history, and done much for a juster appreciation of one of its eminent men.

TUKE'S INFLUENCE OF THE MIND ON THE BODY.*

IN this very curious and interesting book, the author collects from all the sources open to him authentic illustrations of the influence of the mind on the body, and attempts, by arranging these "on a definite physiological basis," to show the extent of this influence in causing disease, its use and importance to physicians as a practical remedy, "and to elucidate by the whole enquiry the nature and action of what is called the imagination." He says, in somewhat turgid English :

"I want medical men who are in active practice to utilize this force, to yoke it to the ear of the son of Apollo, and, rescuing it from the eccentric orbits of quackery, force it to tread with measured step the orderly paths of legitimate medicine."

Dr. Tuke's eminent rank in his profession dissipates the suspicion of charlatany which might well arise from the publication of any book upon the subjects here treated of, considering the libraries of volumes signifying nothing which do duty as the literature of mesmerism, animal magnetism, and modern spiritualism. Whether or not the author accomplishes the very difficult task he has set himself, it may be admitted that he has done the best possible for his subject, and we cannot but admire the catholic professional spirit which is ready to accept assistance from any quarter—a spirit only too unusual in a profession where bigotry and prejudice against new lights are sometimes in an inverse ratio to the scientific knowledge of its members, and the certainty of the principles upon which their system is founded. "Medicine," says Dr. Tuke, quoting with approval from Dr. Rush, "has its Pharisees as well as religion; but the spirit of this sect is as unfriendly to the advancement of medicine as it is to Christian charity."

It is impossible to give anything but the barest analysis of the very complex plan of Dr. Tuke's work. The author, ignoring for the purposes of his book the metaphysician's subtle definitions of the word imagination, means by it, "as regards the present enquiry, that a man imagines certain (bodily) phenomena to have occurred which have not; or it is meant that certain bodily phenomena which really have occurred are due to no other cause than that he imagined they would," and he adopts as his "fundamental principle" the words of Hunter: "I am confident that I can fix my attention to any part until I have a sensation in that part." He assumes that the mind acts on the body "through its threefold states of intellect, emotion, and volition," and arranges his "illustrations," four hundred and thirty in number, so as to show the influence of each of these elements upon, first, sensation; second, the voluntary muscles; third, the involuntary muscles; fourth, the organic functions. These illustrations are drawn from a variety of sources—medical works, the columns of newspapers, and the professional observations of the writer or his correspondents; and, whether of any further value or not, have at least the merit of interest. Space will not admit of extended quotations, but we may mention that, in Dr. Tuke's opinion, which seems authorized by his cited cases, it may well be that

"Deadly fear can turn ongo
And blanch at once the hair,"

and that Byron was quite justified in speaking of men whose hair grew white in a single night. Of interest also, as illustrating a curious tendency among physicians to forget the end and aim of their calling, is the fact

* "Illustrations of the Influence of the Mind on the Body in Health and Disease. Designed to Elucidate the Action of the Imagination." By Daniel Hack Tuke, M.D., M.R.C.P., etc., etc. Philadelphia: Henry C. Lea. 1873.

that many English surgeons of eminence stoutly opposed the use of sulphuric ether as an anaesthetic, not on the ground that it was ineffectual to prevent pain, or unsafe, but because, as Magendie, the French Academician, declared, "it was trivial to suffer, and an invention to annul pain under the knife was only of mediocre interest to surgery."

Dr. Tuke is hardly successful in his attempt to prove that the mental states, especially the emotions, act specifically upon different organs, and that the methods and consequences of such action can be arranged in a scientific form. The author himself, in summing up the results of his investigation, after stating the admitted fact that a specific relation does exist between certain emotions (as grief), and certain glands of the body (as the lachrymal system), admits that he cannot safely go much further. He says, somewhat obscurely:

"Probably we cannot go much beyond these general principles, which, combined with the law that any emotion which, either by its character or its suddenness, depresses the activity of the controlling power of the cerebrum, allows of the irregular or excessive action of the encephalic, spinal, or sympathetic nerve-centres, will generally serve to explain the changes induced in the body by varying mental states."

In his chapter entitled "The Practical Application of the Influence of the Mind on the Body to Medical Practice," the writer gives many instances of the admitted influence of hope, fear, and other emotions, in effecting the cure or hastening the progress of disease, but he does not seem to have elicited anything very new or very valuable. In fact, his only practical conclusion on this branch of his subject seems to be that the physician should acknowledge the possible power of the imagination in effecting cures, and use it as a help in his art, and may, in so doing, properly invoke the aid of the mysterious force called mesmerism, which the author does not attribute to the agency of animal magnetism, so called, but the results of which he seems to regard as due to the active will of the mesmerizer acting upon the passive imagination of his patient.

While Dr. Tuke adopts for the title of his work "terms which accord with popular usage," he does this "only for the sake of clearness," and under a kind of protest, saying, as he does, that "it is more than probable that no amount of scientific knowledge will ever displace the time-honored phrases of 'mind' and 'body.'" But the author himself does not accept these words in their popular meaning, as denoting independent existences as separable from each other as the elements of rock and iron in metallic ore. On the contrary, he recognizes the existence of an "inseparable nexus existing between the two, arising out of the fact that the organ of mind is but the outgrowth and ultimate development of the tissues and organs of which the body itself is composed; that it not only unites them in one common bond, but is, in truth, a microcosm of the whole." Here we suppose he occupies common ground with the best scientific thinkers, but beyond the admitted truth thus expressed, the bases of mental science are wholly speculative, and therefore just as many systems of metaphysics and theories of mental and bodily relation are possible as there are intelligent minds in existence, each being at liberty to assume whatever premises it needs to work out the conclusions which it begins by taking for granted. It is for this reason, as it seems to us, and not from any lack of learning or industry, that Doctor Tuke has failed to add much to the sum of exact knowledge, or to build up his facts and phenomena in a homogeneous scientific form.

The style of this book cannot be commended as a model either of clearness or elegance. In many of the longer paragraphs, subjects and predicates flounder about in hopeless confusion, and, failing to find their right places, only serve to obscure the writer's meaning. We have already given one specimen of Doctor Tuke's fine writing, but what shall be said of the taste which puts the simple fact that an old man compelled his wife to emigrate with him to America in this wise: "He insisted that his wife, toothless for years, and her hair as white as the snow on Mount Blanc, should accompany them to the land where God's creatures were permitted to inhale the pure old invigorating atmosphere of freedom"! In a word, the book adds one to the many existing specimens of a style that may be called Medical English—sometimes stilted, and too often disfigured by attempted witticisms and trite quotations from the poets—a style that may pass without comment in the medical lecture room where it had its origin, but which is utterly unworthy of use in a sober scientific treatise.

HILLEBRAND'S FRENCH OF TO-DAY.*

THOSE who want to understand the present condition of France and the French people will do well to read this book. Professor Hillebrand has undertaken to give his countrymen, an accurate, unbiased view of the society and politics of the nation they conquered. In doing this he does not hesitate

* "Frankreich und die Franzosen in der zweiten Hälfte des XIX. Jahrhunderts. Von Karl Hillebrand." Berlin: Robert Oppenheim; New York: L. W. Schmidt. 1873.

to make comparisons that tell against Germany, and the preface begins with some remarks upon German arrogance which are as severe as any that follow upon French vanity. The author is entitled to be heard with respect. Driven from Baden in early life by political trouble, he was hospitably received in France, and spent there the twenty years from 1850 to 1870 to which his book refers. A keen and educated observer, in a situation which would naturally tend to make him impartial, he has studied and reasoned upon French character and institutions with the interest, and without the prejudices, of a citizen.

In this work he takes up successively French society, French education, life in the provinces and in Paris, literature and politics. Superficial writing on these subjects is common enough, but the thorough acquaintance with them here manifested is extremely rare, and the treatment of each topic does no less credit to the soundness of Professor Hillebrand's judgment than to the sharpness of his insight. The sketches of French social life will be especially pleasant to those who are somewhat familiar with it, and who can appreciate the fidelity as well as the caustic frankness of the touches. Naturally, some things creep in that are to be found in all writers on French character from Caesar down, and there is once in a while too much repetition. But it is not often that the author is either trite or tedious; and, considering the subject, it was very easy to be both. He does full justice to the prudence and practical wisdom of the people, to the perfect organization and charm of their social life, to their skill as administrators of justice and of affairs. Their deep regard for family ties is fully admitted. Some passages will suggest a comparison of the widely different effects upon social life produced by the French marriage relation, based on the understanding and upon practical wisdom, and the marriage of the Anglo-Saxon and German races, resting for the most part upon personal attraction. The far-reaching influence of the respective systems upon society deserves more study than it has yet received. That there is throughout the book a vein of deep dissatisfaction with the national training and life, will not surprise those who have lived longest abroad. "Their virtues," he says, "make daily life agreeable and easy, cheerful and convenient. They are satisfactory for ninety-nine days of life, so long as it rolls on in its accustomed track; but they are unsatisfying on the hundredth day, when that happens which cannot be foreseen, and the storm bursts over their artificial building. . . . 'Scratch the Russian, and you will find a Tartar,' is a French witty saying. With more justice might we add, 'Scratch a Frenchman, and you will find an Irishman.'"—The comparison that follows is not without force.

French education is a subject of which Americans generally know very little, and on which the author is especially at home. While professor in the University at Douay, he was called upon by the Government to prepare a report on the improvement of French instruction, and in 1868 he published a work in Paris on the reform of higher education. He gives interesting details about the present system, and conveys a good idea of the "université," that highly artificial machine, which in its principle, and in its close relations to the state, perhaps resembles China more than its author, the first Emperor, imagined. Both teachers and students are viewed from the standpoint of a professor, and sometimes assailed for faults which are more or less universal. But he complains of the instruction that seeks knowledge, not for itself, but for immediate practical use, in words which will recall Professor Tyndall's parting lecture in this country; and he criticises deservedly the lack of mental training, the attention paid to committing to memory, their chemistry and physics taught without experiment, and their geography, which is simply an acquaintance with the departments of France.

The most thoughtful and able portion of the book is its sketch of the present condition of French political life. The broadly differing views of the various classes of the people, and the difficulties which any government must encounter, are little appreciated, particularly by the daily journalists who instruct us in foreign affairs. With a great capital which is always in opposition, which unites the best intellect and the most dangerous ignorance of the country, where the lower classes hate all restraint, and the educated are devoid of the very idea of political responsibility; with a provincial middle-class that is selfish, timid, and hesitating, and a peasantry absolutely barbarous, the task of government cannot well be harder. Perhaps an additional reason for the instability of French administrations is that they are all so much alike. The word "republic" carries with it in American minds a host of assumptions which often mislead us. If President Grant appointed and removed at pleasure every Governor and State official; if teachers and judges looked to a Secretary for advancement; if our domestic relations were regulated by Congress, and even the police and the sale of cigars placed under the control of a Wash-

ington bureau, we might understand how little a republic may differ from a monarchy or an empire. The superscription on the franc changes, but the same system and institutions remain. The permanence of the latter is well illustrated in a remark which the author, in speaking of the multiplicity of French judges, quotes from a speech of Baron Jouvenel: "I know," said he, "that we live in a country where it is more difficult to suppress a court than to overturn a throne."

Professor Hillebrand's sketch of Napoleon III., and of the constitutional history of the Second Empire, is the first fair, accurate, and intelligent account we have seen of the Emperor's character, his policy, and the attitude of the nation towards it. He adjusts the responsibility for the Empire and its terrible downfall as we think history will adjust it, and, while condemning the Emperor, he is obliged to condemn equally the French people. There is much on this subject that is worth quoting, and the portraits of Napoleon and of Thiers are particularly deserving of thorough study, but want of space forbids us to do more than commend the book itself to the attention of our readers.

THE DOMINANT LANGUAGE OF THE TWENTIETH CENTURY.*

PRESIDENT GRANT'S creed, "I rather believe that the Great Maker is preparing the world to become one nation, speaking one language," is professed, so far as regards language, and within certain limits, by others who are far from expecting, or even desiring, the civil commonwealths of the future to coincide with the commonwealth of letters. For instance, Alphonse de Candolle, the author of the interesting essays one of which we are now considering, is a Swiss, of a city which prides itself upon the purity of its French, but is none the more willing on that account to be absorbed into *la grande nation*, even if that tongue were to become dominant in the twentieth century, as assuredly it will not. The French language, in our author's view, has had its day; and the masterful speech of the coming century is to be English.

The essay in which the reasons for this opinion are set forth is by no means one of the most considerable in this volume, but it is worth a moment's attention. As a naturalist, De Candolle does not fail to observe that Latin is hardly longer to be styled the universal language of science, any more than of the church. It holds its place in descriptive natural history alone, and there we may hope it will continue. But this is Linnaean Latin, which is as much unlike classical Latin as the "French of Stratford-atte-Bow" is unlike French of Paris. It is a technical language, in which the terms are all clearly defined, the vocabulary limited, and the use precise. By its characters of genera and species can be expressed more succinctly and clearly than they possibly can be in any living modern language, except by a transference of the terms themselves, for which, indeed, the English language offers great facilities. But, in other departments of science, and in natural history as well, apart from purely descriptive matter, as in the presentation and discussion of physiological, anatomical, and morphological investigations, the inconvenience of Latin is more and more evident, and modern languages—the vernacular of each writer—are now very generally employed. The great advantage of a common or even a prevalent language is thereby lost, and the inconvenience is becoming grave enough now that French is less important in science than German and English. That French should have taken the place of Latin throughout Europe as the means of intercommunication was natural. An Englishman and a German half learned French in learning Latin; a Spaniard and an Italian had three-quarters of it already. Moreover, its clearness and precision well adapted it to scientific uses. But, as De Candolle remarks, the scientific centre of gravity is moving northward in Europe, and the Scandinavian, and even Russian, as well as the English and German scientists are speaking "every man in his own tongue," to the growing embarrassment of his fellows of other countries. Very few people can be expected to read more than one modern language besides his vernacular; but in these days he needs to be a polyglot. Our author is persuaded that the naturalist of the future will be less embarrassed; that, after the example of the Greek language in the Roman Empire, and of French in modern times, some one language is almost certain to dominate. He indicates two essential conditions which the coming language must fulfil: first, it must have enough both of German and of Latin words or forms to commend it both to the Teutonic and the Latin races; secondly, it must be spoken by a considerable majority of civilized people. Grammatical simplicity, clearness, and especially brevity are also important. The English language alone fulfils these conditions, or will fulfil them fifty or a hundred

* "Histoire des Sciences et des Savants, depuis deux siècles, suivie d'autres études sur des sujets scientifiques, en particulier sur la Sélection dans l'espèce humaine." Genève: H. Georg; New York: F. W. Christern. 1873. 482 pp. 8vo.

years hence. It is half German and half Latin. It holds a position among the principal languages now used in scientific intercourse very like that which was held by French between Latin and several modern languages. The discovery of America doubled its use, and the movement of populations in both hemispheres fixes its destiny. It is now spoken in Great Britain by 31 millions, in North America by 46, in Australia and New Zealand by 2 millions—in all, 77 millions of people. German is spoken at the present time by 62 millions, French by 40½ millions. Then De Candolle estimates that, as the population of England doubles in fifty years, and that of the United States, Australia, etc., in half that time, the probable number of English-speaking people in the year 1970 will be 860 millions, when, at their present rate of increase, German will be spoken by 124 millions and French by 69½ millions. Moreover, English is much more spoken in Africa and in Southern Asia than all other European languages put together. The language of more than three-quarters of Christendom, and of the most active and the most reading people, will necessarily be the one into which all valuable works in other tongues will be translated, that in which they will have many times more readers than in their originals. Already, as our author remarks, German works are largely read by French-speaking people in English translations. As this goes on, English must become the dominant, if not the universal, language so far as science and literature are concerned.

In the prevalence of a language, perhaps the character and situation of a people are more important than the character of the language. Otherwise, the Italian instead of the French language should have prevailed during the last two centuries. It is as clear, more harmonious and elegant, nearer the Latin, and with an earlier and very remarkable literature. The geographical position of France and the number and activity of its people turned the scale. De Candolle assigns another reason: the words in French are shorter, and the verbs less complicated. For similar reasons, the German language, with its three arbitrary genders, its fashion of cutting words in two, and dispersing the fragments, and reserving the most important to the close, could under no circumstances well prevail in these busy modern days—will hardly hold its own without modifications. Grammatical simplicity and, above all, directness and brevity are essential requisites; and in these the English language most conforms to modern tendencies and habits. As compared with Italian, French, and especially with German, it offers the shortest road from one point to another. De Candolle illustrates by several anecdotes and personal experiences the fact that when the two languages, French and German, are spoken in a family, the former gains the day; that English wins over both; and he deduces the general rule that in the conflict of two languages, other things being equal, the briefer and simpler prevails. He naturally finds that English has one great fault, "an absolutely irregular orthography, so absurd that it takes a child a year longer to learn to read than any other European language"; and in pronunciation, the vowels are not well articulated. The orthography, he thinks, may slowly be amended.

The article closes with a homily upon the great responsibility with which the Anglo-American races are charged, the importance of preserving the actual unity of the language, which may be in some danger of breaking up into English, American, and Australian, although certain causes which contributed to the breaking up of the Latin tongue will fortunately not apply to the English populations. And he appeals to the Americans as having the greatest interest in the stability of the language which is to dominate, since it is to have its largest development upon this continent.

Monographs, Personal and Social. By Lord Houghton. (New York: Holt & Williams.)—The desultory sketches here gathered into a volume are all, whether they are of perfectly well-known persons or of persons almost perfectly unknown, based upon Lord Houghton's own acquaintance with the men and women sketched. Thus the book is very fresh; and reading it is like listening to the talk of a clever and cultivated man about some of the noted and noteworthy people he has met in his time. That any part of it is weighty; or that the various parts of it are of equal interest; or that some parts of it may not be of but very little interest to some intelligent audiences, is not pretended. Probably, for example, it must be with a certain remoteness of interest that the New Yorker at Long Branch reads about the Misses Berry—ladies who died the other day, indeed, but who were beauties when George the Second was king, who were correspondents of Madame du Deffaud, and who, out of respect for the beloved memory of a certain friend of theirs, "never, after his death, would wear rouge." The same, too, may be said of the sketch of Cardinal Wiseman, of whom Lord Houghton talks pleasantly, but in such a way that a knowledge of twenty-year-old English polities is requisite to interline what he says, and make it completely intelligible.

The "Heine" and the "Landor" will be read on this side of the water with avidity, those being favorite names with the American general reader;

and the same may be said of the paper on Sydney Smith—while those on Suleiman Pacha and Lady Ashburton will be turned to with a curiosity which each will satisfy, and, as we might perhaps say, each will both satisfy and repay. The former certainly will, as indicating in outline an adventurous and gallant career. The Pacha was born in Lyons, and was the son of a citizen of that town who fought against the Directory when the Lyonnais rebelled against its tyranny. Young Selvès began soldiering by daily carrying his father's dinner to the ramparts. Later, he was an *aspirant de marine*, in which capacity he served during that conflict which Napoleon announced to his Council as "the loss of some vessels by the weather, after a combat imprudently engaged in"—the combat imprudently engaged in being that known as the Battle of Trafalgar. Selvès, in that action, was on board the ship out of whose tops was fired the shot that killed Lord Nelson. By-and-by the young midshipman had the mischance to kill a superior officer in a duel, and fled to the Army of Italy. Thenceforth followed many years of service with the French armies, in Italy, in Germany, in the Russian campaign, and at Waterloo, where he was on Grouchy's staff. Lord Houghton narrates, too, briefly Colonel Selvès's career after his entrance into the service of Mehemet Ali. His really was the conquest of Syria while in the employ of that prince. Afterward, he lived a dignified, honorable, and benevolent life in retirement, the great scheme of an Arab empire between the East and the West having failed, and he being untempted by offers of preferment outside of Egypt.

Of Sydney Smith, Lord Houghton has some new anecdotes, which, however, yield in interest to his analysis of the extremely common-sensible Canon's view of the relations of the clergy to the church and to their flocks and to the state. There can be no greater social anachronism. Lord Houghton remarks in substance, than to suppose that the standard gradually established since 1800 and by which we now judge the sacerdotal character, is at all like the standard in vogue when Sydney Smith made choice of his profession. At that period the ministers of the Church of England were "serious, not austere; pious, not devout; literary, not learned." He went to his profession with no special aptitude and no pretense of a spiritual vocation. "He undertook to perform its duties in the different spheres in which they might be presented to him, to form his life on a certain basis of belief, to submit to its recognized restrictions, and to defer to its constituted authorities." And if in addition to these compliances and services he became a credit and ornament to his profession; if he strengthened its position by his learning or wit or reasoning, he thought it a fair demand that he should have his full share of the dignities and the wealth of the corporation whose interests he had advanced or maintained. In short, he believed the church "to be a valuable branch of the civil service, to guard the morality and guide the education of the people"; he was pleased with its judicial attitude amid the raging of controversies; he liked its cutting off of the Nonjurors on the one hand and its ejection of the Nonconformists on the other; he thought it a sensible man's church, and the church for a man of good taste—it did not expose to the open air "an order of thought and feeling which it was neither good sense nor good taste to make general and familiar." Says Lord Houghton: "'How beautiful it is,' I heard Sydney Smith preach at Combe Florey, 'to see the good man wearing the mantle of piety over the dress of daily life; walking gaily among men, the secret servant of God.'" It is beyond doubt that this gaiety of walk, as understood by him, was the cause why the Whigs neglected to repay his party services with a bishopric—a neglect which Lord Houghton thinks there is good reason for asserting Smith to have felt deeply and blamed freely. Accordingly, Lady Holland's statement that her father treated the rather cowardly conduct of the ministry with dignified indifference Lord Houghton pronounces incorrect. It is beyond doubt, too, that we may readily enough find excuse for both person and party. He knew his value and his services, and, as he had shown by his adhesion to the party cause in its dark days, he himself would have had the courage to do what he asked them to do for him. But, on the other hand, the ministry knew better than he seems to have known the degree in which he had shocked some of the religious and some of the stupid of the many sects and sets which they had to placate. This Lord Houghton seems not to make sufficiently clear; if, indeed, this be the true explanation.

The longest essay is one of nearly ninety pages on Landor, which is good to read for this if for no other reason, that it will be found no bad corrective of the impression which Mr. John Forster's biography of the poet contrives to make; the younger poet, seeing with better eyes than the man of business, shows us the lofty, gentle, and pitiable sides of Landor's character as prominently as the perverse and ungovernably violent. These latter are, however, not forgotten. We must praise also Lord Houghton's chapter on Heine—partly his own and partly communicated by a lady whom Heine had known as a little English girl, and who afterwards soothed his latest hours on his "mattress grave" in Paris. It is a chapter that may profitably be read

together with the short and one-sided chapter on the same subject by Mr. Matthew Arnold, who certainly was further from adequacy in his 'Heine' than in any other portion of the 'Essays in Criticism.' Lord Houghton enriches his kind and pleasant pages with a translation of some of Heine's last lyrics.

Plays and Puritans, and Other Historical Essays. By Charles Kingsley. (London and New York: Macmillan & Co. 1873.)—This volume consists of three essays, of which one gives its title to the book and the others are entitled respectively: 'Sir Walter Raleigh and his Time,' and 'Froude's History of England.' All these were already well known in an American edition published some years since, with several other papers from the same hand, the collection then going under the title of 'Sir Walter Raleigh and his Time.' The admiring reader of the earlier volume will find that nothing of importance is changed in this one. He will find unabated in any degree all the eager partisanship and smoking-hot rhetoric of the days when 'Tract Number Ninety' and its offspring—that daughter and prolific mother of debate—had set all English Churchmen by the ears and caused the English history of a certain period to be pulled hither and thither with so much diligence and so little fairness. But if he finds nothing altered in the essays, he may probably find something altered in his view of them. It was, for instance, in 1856, rather than in 1873, that he very likely took most delight in Master "Zeal-for-the-Truth Thoresby, of Thoresby Rise," with "a sin-eater of a right awful kind in him," with his cuirass and long sword, and with his Bible in his boot-leg, who at Naseby-field plays the man in Israel, hewing Agag in pieces "in the face of death and hell." Whether or not Master Thoresby is delightful any longer, here he is at any rate, as in 1856, "the long rapier swinging round his head, redder and redder with every sweep," so that it is as silly in 1873 as it was formerly to assert that "the Cavalier produced more poetry than the Puritan." Henry VIII. is here, too, as aforetime—as scrupulous, almost over-scrupulous, as he ever was; and his daughter, "that wonderful maid," still says to her Leicesters and Raleighs and Essexes, "Out of the dust I took you, sir! Go and do your duty humbly and rationally henceforth, or into the dust I humble you again"—all in the most royal and majestic manner. The recent visit of Mr. Froude to this country, and the discussion which that gentleman's lectures caused throughout the country, give the volume a certain opportuneness. Hardly less disfigured by Mr. Kingsley's peculiar defects than the other two essays, is the essay entitled 'Plays and Puritans,' which, however, appears to us to be the best of the series. On the other hand, it lacks some of their good qualities of effectiveness. But it is less misleading.

Students' Series of Classic French Plays, edited, with explanatory notes for the use of students, by Edward S. Joynes, M.A., Professor of Modern Languages in Washington and Lee University, Va. I. *Le Cid*, by Corneille; II. *Athalie*, by Racine; III. *Le Misanthrope*, by Molière. (New York: Holt & Williams. 12mo, pp. 356.)—This series of French text-books is already pretty well known to the public, the first of the three having been published some three years ago, and all having gone through several editions. Their appearance now, revised and corrected, in a single volume, furnishes an opportunity for our mentioning them with a few words of recognition of their merits. It may be said with truth, we think, that no other French texts have been edited for class use in this country so carefully, and with such competence of learning. Unfortunately, that is not so high praise as it ought to be, for we have had few editors of such works who have not been content with a facile turning of French idiom into English idiom; that is to say, with doing what would help a French boy make an English version, but not what would make an English student understand his French text. The latter is Professor Joynes's object, and it is throughout successfully attained. No two persons, we presume, would entirely agree as to where a note was needed and where it was superfluous; but certainly no reasonable person can fail to give his general approval to the scale on which the editor of this series has constructed his commentary. With such aid, these masterpieces of the French classic stage are put within the reach of many a class which would not otherwise be equal to undertaking them. And this is no slight favor to many high-school and college teachers, who have longed for the liberty to take up a higher class of texts than has been hitherto accessible. The selection, too, is to be commended without any reservation. Mr. Joynes, in the preface to the "Athalie," shakes his head a little over the decided preference generally accorded to that play over the other works of Racine; but we must confess to sharing that preference heartily. And experience with Molière in the class-room has shown that his "Misanthrope," though less entertaining than some of the other plays, is decidedly the best for purposes of instruction, the one that best repays working through with a set of intelligent pupils. We heartily commend, therefore, Mr. Joynes's editions,

singly and collectively, to the attention and favor of American teachers of French.

In the course of our use of these works, we had marked here and there a note as calling for emendation; but we have found almost every point already rectified in the present revised issue. We will only note here that the explanation of *Athalie*, line 524, "*minquerait-on pour moi de complaisance?*" though much improved, does not seem yet quite right. The queen has not yet begun to command, but only to intimate a desire, and she asks, at the suggestion that her request may be refused, "is it possible that they should lack a readiness to comply with my wishes?" We will add that close by, lines 612-616, we find occasion for a brief additional note or two: "*un enfant est peu propre à trahir sa pensée*" will be certainly rendered, nineteen times out of twenty, "a child is little apt to betray its thought," instead of "to falsify, render unfaithfully"; then there is the quasi-negation implied in *sans*, which requires *d'alarmes*, instead of *des alarmes*, to follow; and that very peculiar French construction whereby *faites prendre* is treated as a single verb, a causative conjugation, and that which is logically the direct object of *faites* is made indirect object of the combination—"à tous mes Tyricons"; since no French verb is allowed to take two direct objects. Perhaps the editor has explained this construction somewhere (none of the ordinary grammars do it); but if so, the place has escaped our notice.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Authors.—Titles.	Publishers.—Prices.
Brunn (Prof. H. M.), Latin Grammar.....	(J. P. Morton & Co.)
Hand-book of English Synonyms.....	(James Miller) \$1.00
Howard (Mrs. B. C.), Fifty Years in a Maryland Kitchen.....	(Turbull Bros.)
Hyde (Anna M.), Work, Play, and Profit.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Jerrold (B.), A Day with Walter Scott, swd.....	(Shepard & Gilb.) 0.25
Johnson (E.), The Mouth of Gold.....	(A. S. Barnes & Co.)
Kirkwood (Prof. D.), Comets and Meteors.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Koner (Dr. W.), Zeitschrift für Erdkunde, No. 42, swd.....	(L. W. Schmidt)
Lippincott's Magazine, Vol. XI.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Lockyer (J. N.), The Spectroscope and its Applications.....	(Macmillan & Co.) 1.50
Smith (Mrs. H. W.), Record of a Happy Life.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)
Spielhagen (F.), What the Swallow Sang.....	(Holt & Williams) 1.25
Tautphœus (Baron de), Cyrilla, swd.....	(T. B. Peterson & Bros.) 0.75
Verne (J.), Tour of the World in 80 Days.....	(J. R. Osgood & Co.) 1.50
In Search of the Castaways.....	(J. B. Lippincott & Co.)

Fine Arts.

RECENT ENGLISH PHOTOGRAPHIC PUBLICATIONS.*

THE selection from the Cesnola antiquities which a London publisher put forth while the public attention in England was attracted to them, is a very small part of these interesting *trouvailles*—only 36 plates and about 100 objects from nearly 10,000—and these are naturally the examples which are most interesting archæologically, e.g., those of works such as have either not been found in other places or which derive new value from having been found in Cyprus. There is nothing in the series photographed interesting as art, and the few examples of fine Hellenic work found are not even represented by a single figure. This was natural, perhaps imperative, in so small a selection from a collection so intensely interesting archæologically, and which artistically is, in its best phase, so far inferior to the splendid Hellenic works in the British Museum.

The chief point of interest brought out by the publication under notice is the marked and curious mingling of archaic work of essentially different types, and showing the presence of two or more emigrations from stocks already partly civilized. Mr. Colvin, in his introduction, dwells on this fact, but curiously makes it an evidence of an influence on the art of other nations emanating from Cyprus, while the only logical deduction is that the early art of all nations in the reach of maritime intercourse with Cyprus drifted into it as a commercial depot, and that, as in all places of this comingled parentage, nothing locally peculiar existed in it. And this, indeed, the collection of the types goes far to prove—there are those of Egyptian *provenance*; others, purely archaic, of Assyrian; and others still, more distinctly marked, and probably the earliest of all, of Etruscan (Pelasgic?) kin. The Hellenic art proper, as Mr. Newton has shown (*Academy*, December 15, 1872), was here exotic, and never, even in the most virile days of the Hellenic intellect, produced a school in Cyprus. It is, indeed, highly probable that the Hellenic colonists were few in number, mercantile; and the utter want of local sympathy or affinity with the original stock prevented any artistic motive of Hellenic type from ever taking form there.

It is only possible to conjecture the history pointed out by the slender evidence of style in technical results, but of all the evidence artistic archaeology

* 'The Antiquities of Cyprus, discovered principally on the sites of the Ancient Golgoi and Idalium, by General Luigi Palma di Cesnola, from a selection made by C. T. Newton, M.A., Keeper of Antiquities at the British Museum. Introduction by Sidney Colvin, M.A.' London: Mansell & Co.

'A Series of Photographs from the Collections in the British Museum. Photographs by S. Thompson. Introduction by Chas. Harrison.' London: Mansell & Co.

gives us, the manner and make of household implements are the best, because they are necessarily the earliest and the most difficult to change. The tenacity with which incompletely civilized people cling to their household vessels is shown in the fact that most of the ancient common utensils now in use in the East were used 2,000 years ago, and the vases which the water-bearing youths on the frieze of the Parthenon carry on their shoulders, may still be seen poised in the same way going from the wells of some of the Greek islands. There are in the collection (Plates 1 to 4) some examples of pottery, of which some will be recognized at once by any one who has rummaged amongst the curiosity-shops of the Archipelago and the cities of Italy, and which Dr. Conze, as quoted by Mr. Colvin, protests against putting down to Phoenician makers. "He argues that those vases of which the decoration is purely linear and geometrical, are the work of the Pelasgic or, at any rate, of a primitive Aryan race, and that the advent of the first Asiatic colonists is shown by the introduction of the fickle ware bearing flower forms and rude animals." And this so fully accords with what we find at Cyprus and elsewhere in the Archipelago, as well as in the Morea and Etruria, that as well founded a conjecture as any which can be formed is that the early settlers of Cyprus, or of Crete and other islands, were the Pelasgi of Dr. Conze, after whom came the Assyrians, of whom Mr. Colvin (following Newton and Poole of the British Museum) says:

"Plates — show a wave of Assyrian influence passing over the art of the island. Still, beneath this, too, there is the peculiar, experimental, and local something of which we have spoken. It is not only the peculiar cast of features, the receding forehead, the high cheek-bones and sunken cheeks, the thick, protruding nose, chin, and lips, which constitute a type apart. *That, travellers say, is the type of the Cypriote population to this hour.* . . . There is a point in the progress of the style where these sculptures closely resemble examples of the most archaic Greek work found in other places—a point where *archaic Greek and Etruscan and this are almost indistinguishable*—with the set, unmeaning smile of the mouth, and the more or less rigid attachment of the arms to the body, according to the traditional type of the helplessness of art before the innovation of Daedalus. M. Longperier and Mr. Newton have pointed out the very singular similarity that exists in more points than one between the Cyprian statuary and Etruscan statuary found at Cervetri."

The prominence of Hercules in these sculptures points to another curious chain of evidence in this direction, for, wherever the Pelasgi have been, Hercules is eminent, and if, indeed, we put "Pelasgi" for "Phoenician" in all the traditions of Hercules, Crete, the Peloponnesus, westward, and on

the shores of the Aegean, we shall find evidence enough to maintain a theory that Hercules and the Heracleidae are only names for the Pelasgi—if, indeed, the Phoenicians were not Pelasgi of a second departure.

Of the photographs themselves of this series, I have said nothing. They are by a new process, a photo-chemical one, which, from these examples, does not seem to possess any advantage over the usual silver prints which compose the British Museum series, while it has peculiar defects.

This latter series is certainly one of the most remarkable undertakings of its kind of any time. It includes over a thousand photographs, divided into prehistoric and ethnographical, Egyptian, Assyrian, Grecian, Etruscan and Roman, and mediæval British and foreign series, and a series of the seals of sovereigns, of personages, orders, and corporations, beginning with those of Charlemagne, Offa, king of the Mercians, and Dagobert I. Not least in interest amongst the Greek works will be found the newly discovered sculptured columns from Ephesus, which have great significance in art-history. What may be said of photography as a means of record of whatever facts and forms are worth recording, may be said of Mr. Thompson's work. The limitations of locality and atmosphere are severe in the British Museum, but so far as they could be overcome they have been, and better work than may be found in this series is not to be seen to-day anywhere; and when one can estimate the labor involved in executing a thousand such negatives, he will credit the photographer with a courage and patience not often met even in his craft—the enterprise in its inception being due entirely to him, and, to a certain extent, the pecuniary risk.

The introduction of Mr. Harrison is not, by much, equal to the body of the work. Its analysis of the Assyrian records is full and extremely interesting to the casual reader, but save for the collation of dates and styles there is nothing else which gives serious value to the introduction, while the value which this collation might have had, done wisely and simply, is to a great extent interfered with by the expression of unconsidered theories and conclusions which are not in accord with the data. There is no need to repeat what has been said in noticing the Cesnola publication, but Mr. Harrison has added gross inaccuracies to the debatable positions which Mr. Colvin is compelled to take in default of anything beyond conjecture to build on.

It is hardly too much to say that every popular museum in America should be in possession of this series of photographs.

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THE WEEK IN TRADE AND FINANCE.

JUNE 30, 1873.

It has rarely been our fortune to witness a duller week than the one just passed. Money has been a drug at 4 per cent., with the bulk of call loans standing at 3 per cent. The summer bids fair to remain extremely dull in the different markets, and this feeling has led to quite an exodus of Wall Street men to Europe and the different watering-places in this country.

The advices from London are favorable. The Bank of England reports a gain of £419,000 in bullion. No change was made on Thursday in the discount rate, which remains at 6 per cent. The Bank of France gained last week 2,250,000 francs in specie.

The weekly statement of the Clearing-house banks of this city is very favorable. The excess in reserve over the amount required by law now held by the National banks is \$13,114,975. The State banks, although not required by law to keep a reserve of 25 per cent., hold \$7,929,125 in legal tenders and specie, against \$31,716,500 total liabilities, or \$827,475 more than the National banks are required to hold. The percentage of reserve to liabilities in National banks, 30.97; State banks, 27.61. The excess of both National and State banks in reserve is \$13,942,450, against \$12,166,375 last week—a gain of \$1,776,075. The statement is the more favorable owing to the gain in reserve being so largely made up of legal tenders.

The following are the statements of the last two weeks:

	June 21.	June 28.	Differences.
Loans.....	\$278,903,800	\$281,506,600	Inc. \$2,602,800
Specie.....	27,398,300	27,661,500	Inc. \$263,200
Circulation.....	27,352,000	27,311,400	Dec. 40,600
Deposits.....	220,392,500	224,040,800	Inc. 3,648,300
Legal tenders.....	46,704,200	49,119,000	Inc. 2,414,800

The following shows the relation between the total reserve and the total liabilities:

	June 21.	June 28.	Differences.
Specie.....	\$27,398,300	\$27,661,500	Inc. \$263,200
Legal tenders.....	46,704,200	49,119,000	Inc. 2,414,800
Total reserve.....	\$74,102,500	\$76,780,500	Inc. \$2,678,000
Circulation.....	27,352,000	27,311,400	Dec. 40,600
Deposits.....	220,392,500	224,040,800	Inc. 3,648,300
Total liabilities.....	\$247,744,500	\$251,352,200	Inc. \$3,607,700
25 per cent. reserve.....	61,936,125	62,828,050	
Excess over legal reserve.....	12,166,375	13,942,450	Inc. 1,776,075

The stock market remained dull throughout the week in common with everything else. Prices closed firm on Saturday, with some indication of an upward movement in Lake Shore. The death of Mr. Clark left a vacancy in the presidency of the Company, and rumor is already at work setting

afloat stories regarding his successor. One of these, which, by the way, is used freely among parties who are active buyers of the stock, is that no less a personage than Commodore Vanderbilt is hereafter to hold the reins, and will shortly be elected President. The price of the stock advanced again to-day, and left off at the close 94, bid after selling at 94½. Pacific Mail is weak. After talking all the week about issuing bonds to the amount of \$6,000,000 for the purpose of paying for new steamers, the directors have ascertained from their legal adviser that "it can't be done." On Saturday, the stock sold down to 37½, and to-day this was followed by a further decline to 35½. The "talk" in the Exchange is that the parties interested in the decline desire to put it down to 30 before covering their "shorts." The general market has remained nearly stationary as regards price. Michigan Central has been rather pressed for sale, owing to some doubt as to the payment in any form of its next dividend. From what we can hear, it is probable that the July dividend will be passed altogether.

The following shows the highest and lowest sales of the leading stocks, at the Stock Exchange, for the week ending June 23:

	Monday.	Tuesday.	Wednesday.	Thursday.	Friday.	Saturday.
N. Y. C. & H. R.	101 1/2	10 1/2	101 1/2	101 1/2	101 1/2	101 1/2
Lake Shore.....	92 1/2	92 1/2	92 1/2	92 1/2	92 1/2	92 1/2
Erie.....	62 1/2	63 1/2	63 1/2	63 1/2	63 1/2	63 1/2
Do. pid.....						
Union Pacific.....	24 1/2	25 1/2	23 1/2	24 1/2	24 1/2	24 1/2
Chi. & N. W.	72	74 1/2	71 1/2	70 1/2	70 1/2	71 1/2
N. J. Central.....	106	105 1/2	106	106 1/2	106	106 1/2
Rock Island.....	108 1/2	109 1/2	108 1/2	109 1/2	108 1/2	109 1/2
Mil. & St. Paul.....	51	51 1/2	50 1/2	51 1/2	50 1/2	50 1/2
Wabash.....	67 1/2	68 1/2	67 1/2	67 1/2	67 1/2	67 1/2
D. L. & Western.....	98	99 1/2	97 1/2	97 1/2	97 1/2	97 1/2
B. H. & Erie.....	2 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2	2 1/2
O. & M.	37 1/2	38 1/2	38 1/2	38 1/2	38 1/2	38 1/2
C. C. & I. C.	27 1/2	28	27 1/2	27 1/2	27 1/2	28
W. U. Tel.	85	85 1/2	84 1/2	84 1/2	84 1/2	84 1/2
Pacific Mail.....	37 1/2	38 1/2	37 1/2	38 1/2	37 1/2	38 1/2

Business in Government bonds has been very slight, the market here and in London not admitting of purchases for shipment. The larger part of the July interest belongs to foreign bondholders, and it is probable that the money will be kept here for reinvestment in bonds.

The market for State bonds is extremely dull. Meetings of holders of North Carolina special-tax bonds have been held, and the opinion of Mr. Johnson, that suits can be brought to compel the payment of the interest, is favorably received, and will probably be acted upon.

The decline to 115 for gold on Monday of last week was followed by a reaction which carried the price up to 115 1/2 on Friday. The large amount of gold bid for at the Treasury sale on Thursday, \$15,963,000, gave rise to a rumor that a new clique had taken hold of the market for an upward movement. Subsequently the price fell off to 115 1/4 on Saturday. The range of prices has been between 115 and 115 1/2, closing at 115 1/2 Saturday.

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